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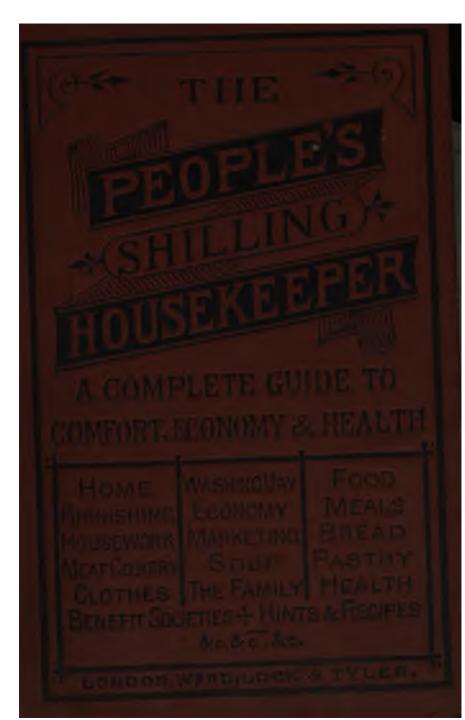
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TO

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### THE

# PEOPLE'S HOUSEKEEPER.

### A COMPLETE GUIDE

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## COMFORT, ECONOMY, AND HEALTH.

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Puce
Purple
Canary
Maroon
Cerise
Scarlet
Orange
Blue



Crimson
Brown
Black
Lavender
Slate
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### PREFACE.

THE management of a home is a matter of great importance to everybody concerned. Between a well-regulated household and an ill-managed one the difference is so great that it can hardly be described in words; though it is readily understood by those who have compared and contrasted the two in actual life.

The highest moral qualities and the best intentions fail to make a happy home, in the absence of cleanliness, economy, and order; or if the food is badly selected and improperly prepared, and the various details of domestic duty are neglected. In such a dwelling there will be a continual sense of discomfort. Husband and wife are dangerously liable to lose that respect for each other which is essential to their happiness; and very frequently, where temptation is strong and the moral character weak, worse follows.

It is a matter of common complaint that in works treating of household matters the wants of persons of very limited incomes are overlooked: in these pages they have been constantly borne in mind. Beginning at the commencement of domestic life, we have passed in review its various features and duties for the purpose of offering practical suggestions in connection with each. In our

opening pages will be found hints respecting the choice of a dwelling, with information as to the liabilities of landlords, tenants, and lodgers. These are followed by chapters on housework and household economy. In dealing with the large and important subjects of marketing and food we have endeavoured, in the fewest possible words and the plainest manner, to explain the merits of the various articles of diet and the best method of preparing them for use. All unnecessary repetition has been carefully avoided, and ample information has thus been condensed into a small space; the recipes given will, at the same time, be found consistent with the utmost possible economy.

Under the headings of "Clothing" and the "Family," and in the chapters relating to Health and Disease, we have attempted to supply directions in respect to matters upon which much ignorance unfortunately exists, and in which neglect always leads to unhappy results.

In short, and without entering into further details here, it has been our object in this small volume to assist our readers, especially those who belong to the artizan class, by placing in their hands the results of observation and experience in connection with household management, with especial reference to their particular wants and resources.

J. T. Y.



BEFORE a home can be managed and regulated it must be obtained, and we commence our task by offering a few hints upon this part of our subject. To persons of limited means the question is full of difficulty. Rents have long been rising in our large towns, and an artizan is often obliged to pay more than a fair proportion of his earnings for a place to live in. It is impossible to lay down any hard and fast rule; but it is better to pay the cost of sufficient healthy and comfortable accommodation than to suffer for want of room, and run the risk of dwelling in a close, unhealthy neighbourhood.

### 1.—Accommodation Required—Rent.

Ir possible, a working-man and his wife should have at least three rooms, and the price of these will depend upon locality and other circumstances; but the rent and cost of getting to and from work ought not to exceed a fifth of a working-man's wages. In London the rent will probably amount to nearly as much as this; and in our large provincial towns it will scarcely be much less. There is, of course, the alternative of taking the responsibility of a house large enough to let off a part, in which case, if successful in getting and keeping good lodgers, the rent may be materially reduced.

By way of showing the danger of living in small and badly-ventilated rooms, we give a few facts out of a great many of the same kind that could be furnished. A medical officer of health recently mentioned the death-rate of six streets in his district. In one of them the inhabitants died at about the rate of 69 in a thousand every year, while in another the rate was only about 19 per thousand. The reason of this difference is, that in one street the houses are large and the rooms of a fair size; and although the majority of the rooms are occupied each by a separate family, which is anything but healthy, yet they are not so badly off for ventilation as in the other street, or rather court, where the death-rate is so high. There the houses are small, each with four rooms, and ten persons in each house; the court has no thoroughfare, and although there are small back yards with the usual

domestic accommodations in them, and pipe drains running into the sewer, which is newly built, and the houses are kept fairly clean, yet, owing to the miserably small rooms, the inhabitants poison one another—as people always do when they are crowded together too closely—and health is impossible. Both streets are in the same neighbourhood, and inhabited by the same kind of people.

Still more remarkable figures are given in connection with three sets of buildings belonging to the same owners. The one is a block of new model houses, and the mortality of the inhabitants is at the rate of rather over 4 per thousand per annum; the second is a block of fairly good houses, which have been altered and improved, and in them the death-rate has been about 18 per thousand; the third is a block in which the mortality has been at the rate of rather over 36 per thousand per annum. All these buildings have water supply and closets, are kept as clean as possible, and are inhabited by pretty nearly the same class of people; but in the case of these last-mentioned houses, in which the death-rate is so high, the buildings are old, the foundations rotten, the walls are decaying, the roofs leaky, the back-yards small, with a high wall running up behind, which prevents proper ventilation; and so the people are poisoned, sicken, and die nearly nine times as fast as in the first block of houses.

### 2.—Distance.

ONE very important consideration in taking a house will be whether it is sufficiently near to the place of employment. A man who sits to his work all day needs exercise, and a moderate walk night and morning is almost necessary to his health. In the case of persons employed in manual labour the extra exertion of walking several miles to and from home is waste of strength. Altogether it is a question in which the advantages and disadvantages will have to be carefully balanced, and the decision arrived at after they have been duly weighed. Apart from this, the first question will be the situation, size, and condition of the house itself.

#### 3.—Common Defects in Houses.

DWELLINGS very similar in appearance may differ greatly as to healthiness, and it frequently happens that the unhealthiness of a house or neighbourhood is not suspected, and a succession of families occupy a residence without attributing their bad health to the real cause. One common defect in houses is dampness, and as a damp house is an unhealthy one, the walls should be carefully looked to, and the origin of any stains detected in them ascertained, as it will sometimes happen that a dry house may have large damp stains caused by a neglected pipe or some similar temporary defect. If, however, the rooms are incurably damp, they can only be occupied at great risk to health.

The next point to be looked to is the water. As, however, this is in almost all cases supplied by public companies, there is scarcely ever any choice for the consumer as to its source; he must take what is given; but it is quite within his power to ascertain whether the tubs or cisterns used for storage

are in good condition and clean, or, at least, whether they will be sufficiently under his control to make and keep them so, and not open to contamination from sewage. The water-closets and drains should also receive attention. If the water-closet is in the house, especially where it is to be used by more than one family, it is generally a disadvantage, unless, as is the case in some of the "model" dwellings now constructed in our large towns, special care has been taken.

These things seen to, there are a few other matters to be inquired into. Is the roof water-tight? This is a question that need not be put unless the ceilings in the top rooms show suspicious stains. If they do, it should be ascertained whether the roof has been properly repaired since the wet stains were caused. Landlords are often troubled with exacting and careless tenants, who are never satisfied with what is done, and who misuse the property they rent; but landlords also are often very careless about the comfort of their tenants, and when once a house is let, will make them suffer a long time from inconveniences that might have been removed before they entered.

Smoky chimneys may frequently be detected by the dirty paint over the fireplaces. They are amongst the most annoying of minor grievances connected with house accommodation, and it is scarcely ever possible to ascertain beforehand whether the chimneys of a house are entirely free from the habit. Some chimneys "smoke" whenever there is a high wind from one particular quarter, others smoke when the wind is in any quarter but one. By all means find out if possible, on looking over a house with a view to taking it, whether there are any "smoky" chimneys in it; if there are, leave the house to those who like them.

#### 4.—Minor Details.

AFTER these really important matters, the minor details of locks, grates, cupboards, blinds, sashes, window-fastenings, &c., should be looked to, but they are seldom things which decide the question of taking or leaving a house. Where, however, it is intended to relet a part, it is necessary to pay more attention to these smaller matters, especially in the apartments which are to be let, or the tenant may find himself obliged either to pay for repairs or wait his landlord's convenience to do them, and in the meantime perhaps lose several weeks' rent for want of lodgers.

### 5.—Apartments.

What we have said about a house applies, of course, to taking apartments, except that the responsibility is not so great, and a mistake is more easily remedied, as apartments can generally be vacated at a week's notice, while houses are usually held by the month or quurter, and if taken by the quarter cannot be vacated without a clear quarter's notice, unless by permission of the landlord, who will, however, generally allow a tenant to leave at any time, if a satisfactory occupant can be obtained to take the place of the outgoing tenant. Remember, however, both in taking and letting apartments, that no rooms are fit for any family unless there is storage for at least half-a-ton of coals and a suitable place for a safe to keep provisions in.

### 6.-Yearly Tenancies-Agreements.

Is anything more than a quarterly tenancy is desirable, it will be better to have an agreement, which may be drawn up in the following terms:—

(Signed) A.B.C.D.

#### Witness, E. F.

Two copies of the agreement should be signed and one retained by each party. The schedule referred to should contain a list of the fixtures, and in order that there may be no dispute at the termination of the tenancy as to the extent of dilapidations, it will be necessary to go over the house and add to the schedule a list of those which already exist. For instance—

Top room.—Two panes of glass cracked in north window. Fastening of south window broken. Key of door missing.

And so on throughout the house, or the tenant may be called upon to do a good many repairs on leaving for which he is not prepared.

#### 7.—Taking Possession.

THE landlord is bound to give possession at the time mentioned for the commencement of the tenancy, but he is not bound to seek the tenant for that purpose, and whether the tenant takes possession when he is entitled or not makes no difference as to rent, which will commence at the time specified. When the agreement is only verbal, the delivery and acceptance of the key is usually the only tangible evidence of the tenancy.

#### 8.—Duties of Landlords and Tenants.

THE form of agreement given above contains stipulations that the landlord shall maintain the external part of the house in a reasonably sound condition. This he would not legally be obliged to do unless bound by the agreement, and the tenant would have to go on paying his rent even though the roof were to be blown off.

On the other hand, the words "reasonable wear and use" and "fire, storm, and tempest" are introduced to prevent the tenant being compelled to do more than he ever contemplated, perhaps to the extent of restoring in case of

fire, though, should fire occur, the tenant must go on paying rent until the ordinary termination of his tenancy.

#### 9.-When Rent is Due.

RENT is due at midnight of the day on which it is payable, and on the next day the landlord may demand and enforce payment without notice of any kind, and notwithstanding any promise or custom to the contrary; but the tenant is under no obligation to seek out the landlord for the purpose of tendering his rent.

#### 10.—Distraint.

No distraint for rent can be made on Sunday, Christmas Day, or Good Friday, and it is illegal to enter for distress for rent between sunset and sunrise.

Any person distraining for rent must produce a written authority from the landlord, must not break into the house, but may enter through any unfastened door or window, or any other aperture he may discover; or if a door is opened he may enter without permission. He must demand the rent of the first person he encounters, is bound to produce his warrant on being asked, and if the money is paid before seizure, he must retire without charging the tenant with any costs or expenses whatever.

If the money is not paid the bailiff may proceed to a seizure, breaking through any inner door, if necessary, to come at sufficient property; but he must not seize perishable merchandise or domestic stores, such as meat, fish, and green vegetables; clothing and ornaments in wear; bedding in use; tools, implements, and utensils in use; horses and other animals at work; the goods of strangers in the temporary possession of the tenant or undertenants for manufacture or repair in the way of trade; horses and cattle belonging to strangers, in the possession of farriers or butchers; property consigned to auctioneers for sale; pledges in possession of pawnbrokers; property of guests at inns or hotels; fixtures of every description; and certain kinds of farming stock.

Machines, utensils in trade, and tools of every description are not to be taken as long as there is anything else to take.

All property belonging to the tenant removed after sunrise on rent-day may be followed by the bailiff, and seized for rent any time within thirty days after the time of removal.

In every case of distress for rent the tenant is entitled to five days of grace after seizure, wherein he has an opportunity, if possible, to pay the rent and expenses, which he is entitled to do, to the immediate exclusion of the bailiff, and recovery of all his property at any moment; but if this is not done the bailiff will call in two appraisers, who will value the goods, putting a memorandum of the value of the whole upon the inventory, and the goods may then be sold for "the best price that can be gotten."

When the distress is for any amount under £20, the costs allowed by Act of Parliament are—for levying the distress, three shillings; man in possession.

two shillings and sixpence per day; advertisements, if any, ten shillings; catalogues and other expenses of sale, one shilling in the pound on the net proceeds; and in case of excess charges an appeal should be made to a magistrate. If the rent due is more than twenty pounds there are no strictly-defined rules as to costs, and the only remedy in case of excess is in the county court.

### 11.—Protection for Lodgers in case of Distraint.

If a lodger has reason to believe that a distress is likely to be put into a house for rent due by the tenant with whom he lodges, his best plan will be to move as quickly as possible, for though an Act was passed in 1871 to protect the goods of lodgers, the necessary proceedings are very troublesome. The lodger, or his agent, must make, sign, and deliver to the landlord or bailiff an inventory of his property, with a written declaration that he is in lawful possession of it, and that the householder has no right of property or beneficial interest in any of the items; also what rent is due from the lodger to the householder. If the lodger owes any rent he must pay it to the bailiff or landlord, instead of to the householder. Any false statement is punishable as for a "misdemeanour."

Should the bailiff or landlord proceed with the seizure, a magistrate should be at once applied to, who can make an order for the restoration of the property.

In the absence of the lodger, or of any person authorised to act for him, when the seizure is made and during the succeeding five days, his goods are liable to be seized and sold. An under-tenant, not being a lodger, is not protected by the Act.

### 12.-Rates and Taxes.

Unless the landlord has expressly agreed to pay rates and taxes the tenant is liable for all of them; but an incoming tenant is not liable for arrears of rates and taxes due from the previous tenant. The collector will usually assist the new tenant in getting an overcharge corrected, but otherwise an appeal must be made to the office of the local body by whom the rate or tax is authorised.

These remarks do not apply to gas and water charges. A proposing tenant should, therefore, satisfy himself by application to the nearest offices of each company that there is nothing owing, or insist upon a guarantee from the landlord—or he may find his gas or water supply cut off on account of the preceding tenant's default; and there will then be no remedy but to pay.

Land-tax, property-tax (called officially "Income-tax, Schedule A"), and, in some few instances, sewers rates and burial rates, are called landlord's taxes, because the tenant, having paid them, is entitled to deduct them from the next rent he pays, unless the tenant has expressly and undoubtedly agreed not so to deduct them; but it is important to observe that if the very next rent is paid without making the deduction, there is no right to deduct from any rent afterwards paid.

If the rate is not paid on demand, the duty of taking or sending the amount to the collector devolves upon the ratepayer. A considerable margin of time is usually allowed; but the ratepayer, in case of non-payment, is liable any day without notice to be summoned before the magistrates. If the rate is paid before the time appointed for the magistrates to hear the case, the expense is trilling, but if the case comes before the magistrates the expense is considerable; and the magistrates have power to authorise an immediate distress upon the goods of the tenant to the amount of rate and costs; and if no goods, or not sufficient goods, can be found upon the premises of the ratepayer, he is liable to imprisonment for three months.

#### 13.-Notice to Leave.

A WEEKLY tenant is only required to give a week's notice on leaving; a monthly tenant must give a month's notice, and a quarterly tenant cannot leave without giving a quarter's notice; but a yearly tenant is required to give notice six months previously, and his tenancy can only terminate at the time of year corresponding to its commencement.

#### 14.-Fixtures.

OUTGOING tenants are at liberty to take away all their own fixtures, strictly so called, but if they leave any fixtures behind them by mistake they are not entitled to re-entry to recover them; and if an incoming tenant once obtains possession, including fixtures belonging to the outgoing tenant, such incoming tenant is entitled to the detention and use of such fixtures, in defiance of both landlord and outgoing tenant, unless he has expressly agreed to pay for them or deliver them up.

Outgoing tenants are not entitled to pull down buildings or portions of buildings which they have erected without covenants, except in the case of farm buildings.

### 15.—Duration of Lodgers' Tenancies.

If there is no special agreement about the terms between a householder and a lodger, the period of tenancy is governed by the intervals of rent. If the rent is paid weekly it is a weekly tenancy, and so on; and if a weekly rent is suffered to run into arreurs for four weeks, and is then all paid and accepted as for a month, the tenancy becomes monthly; and afterwards, unless otherwise distinctly expressed, the tenant must remain, or pay rent from month to month.

### 16.—Distress for Rent on Lodgers.

LODGERS are liable to distress when their rent is in arrears, just as other tenants are; but in case of furnished lodgings, with attendance, distress can only be put in for the bare value of the rooms, deducting the estimated value of the use of furniture and attendance; therefore the remedy for recovery of rent of furnished lodgings is by action in the county court, not technically for rent, but "for use and occupation."

### 17.-Ejectment from Lodgings.

If a lodger persists in retaining possession after he is legally entitled to do so, he may be legally ejected by proceedings before magistrates, of which any magistrate's clerk will give information.

The information given above will be all that is necessary for ordinary purposes. If further guidance with respect to the law relating to landlords and tenants be required, we must refer our readers to Beeton's Landlord, Tenant, and Lodger.

### FURNISHING.

Supposing a suitable house or apartments to have been found, the question of furnishing will be next in order.

### 18.-Furnished Apartments.

We have known young people enter upon married life by taking furnished apartments; but it is a most improvident proceeding, and almost sure to lead to future embarrassment. If it be necessary seriously to argue against such a step, it will be sufficient to point out that paying for other people's furniture is simply waste, and that it is far easier to save money before marriage than after, especially when the probability of a young family is taken into account. A little self-denial and strict economy will enable almost any mechanic to lay by money enough to furnish his own apartments, and whatever he may be able to save after marriage will be seldom more than necessary to meet increasing responsibilities. To postpone an engagement for twelve months is a far less evil than to enter upon it without due preparation. To say the least of it, to commence housekeeping in furnished apartments is an act of thoughtlessness that promises badly for the future welfare of the household.

### 19.—Furnishing on Credit.

THERE is another form of the same mistake which should be avoided—furnishing, or partly furnishing, on credit. The temptation to do this is often very great. The time to commence housekeeping has perhaps been settled by an engaged couple, and it is found as the period approaches that the money in hand is not sufficient to meet necessary expenses; possibly the cost of furnishing has been under-estimated. Neither party is willing to put off the event, and, besides, friends would think it strange. What is to be done? A part of the furniture is purchased and paid for. The tradesman is willing to supply the remainder and take the payment in weekly instalments, and so the new-married couple begin life in debt. There is no need

to do this if the expense of furnishing is carefully calculated beforehand, for should the money, after all, run a little short, some of the least essential articles may be left to be bought afterwards. Everything in the new home should be paid for outright when it is brought in, but it is not necessary to furnish so completely as to leave nothing to be desired or added afterwards as opportunity serves.

### 20.—Some Suggestions as to Furniture.

In purchasing furniture and articles of domestic use the range of prices and the variety of material and style are so great that a good deal of care is required, and what it is best to buy depends very much upon what there is to spend and the wages earned. To use a common expression, the coat must be cut according to the cloth, but whatever is bought should be good of its kind. Badly-made furniture is never cheap at any price.

For ordinary use we recommend windsor chairs, both for wear and comfort. Cane-bottom chairs are not strong enough, and as far as appearance goes, a well-made windsor chair is to our taste quite as neat. Common stuffed chairs of every sort should be avoided; they neither look well nor wear well, and the best are too expensive, and really out of place in a working-man's home. A good cane-bottomed chair for the parlour is much more suitable than a stuffed chair.

Good "Felt" carpeting—and if not good it is not worth buying at all—wears well, looks nice, and is moderate in price. It is, therefore, very suitable for a sitting-room, and, where a more expensive material cannot be afforded, for a parlour.

Iron bedsteads are preferable to wooden ones; they do not so readily harbour vermin, and are lighter and more easily moved. "White wood" furniture for the bedroom looks very nice when new, but does not wear well. Painted wood is much better. If something superior is required, good Honduras mahogany drawers will last a lifetime, and look well.

When accommodation is limited, a deal-top table with mahogany legs is a serviceable article, as the top is not seen when covered with a tablecloth, and it is convenient when cooking is about.

American cloth makes good tablecloths, perhaps the best and cheapest for ordinary use.

Purchase a fair assortment of kitchen utensils to start housekeeping with. Nobody can work without tools, and food cannot be properly prepared if there is nothing to prepare it with.

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### HOUSEWORK.

UNDER exceptional circumstances it may be necessary for the wife as well as the husband to go out to work, and in the manufacturing districts, we are sorry to say, it is a very common occurrence. As an inevitable consequence, a great deal of domestic comfort is sacrificed, for a home needs constant womanly supervision, and with the commencement of family cares a wife and mother seldom has much unoccupied time on her hands. In the household of an artizan the wife must be her own housemaid, cook, and keeper of the wardrobe, and the duties she has to undertake single-handed cannot be properly performed without systematic industry.

### 21.—Daily Duties.

It is not uncommon for household work to accumulate and get into arrears. and to prevent this and lay the foundation for cleanliness, order, and economy -three comprehensive essentials of good management-requires a great deal of care. Each day of the week, therefore, should have its special duties, and every part of the day its occupation. "A place for everything and everything in its place" should be the rule, accompanied by another, "A time for everything and everything at its time." The common practice of leaving all the "cleaning" to the end of the week, and crowding it into a single day, is the cause of a great deal of totally unnecessary discomfort. In many families both Friday and Saturday are looked forward to with dread—the one being washing day, and on the other the house is turned "inside out," to be finished up late at night with marketing and ironing; while Sunday morning is entirely occupied with cooking and putting the place "to rights" after the grand cleaning of the day before. To avoid this the house-cleaning should be distributed through the week. The bedroom, for instance, can be washed and thoroughly cleaned up on its own special day, and the sitting-room and parlour on another. By such arrangements the Saturday will bring with it no more than can be comfortably managed, and we recommend the plan of cooking the Sunday's dinner on Saturday, that the Sunday itself, as a day of rest. may not be burdened with household cares. Many people have become so accustomed to hot dinners on Sunday that they would find the change very disagreeable at first, but we think they might soon get used to it, and feel the comfort of the alteration.

Daily duties and the order of their performance will vary according to circumstances, but one of the first things to be done, either before or immediately after breakfast—summer and winter—should be to turn the bedclothes down, and, if the weather will permit, open the window, that both the bedding and the room may be properly ventilated. The breakfast-things should be washed and cleared away as soon as the meal is over. By this

time the thoughtful housewife will generally have determined upon the dinner arrangements, and as this ought to be prepared with unfailing punctuality, anything connected with it that requires such early attention should be seen to. It is very annoying for the husband to come home at the regular dinner hour and find his meal not ready. A good deal of the housework, including the making of the beds, &c., may generally be got through previous to dinner, and the remainder finished before tea-time, leaving the evening free for needlework or other occupation. The two points which we are endeavouring to enforce are—the necessity for general cleanliness, which requires that the rooms should each receive a thorough weekly cleaning up. except in winter time, when the bedroom need not be scrubbed out oftener than fortnightly; and the advantage of order and arrangement in the work. that it may not be inconveniently crowded into the end of the week. Let every day have its duties, and they will be performed with greater ease, and so done that the husband returning from his work at night may be sure of being welcomed by a tidy wife to a comfortable home.

#### 22.—Personal Neatness-Order.

Some women—admirable managers in many respects—forget how much depends upon their personal neatness, and how unattractive they become for want of it. After a few months of married life they cease to take any care for their own appearance, and go about the house from morning to night with untidy hair, dirty hands and face, and rumpled and soiled dress. If by any chance they make an excuse—and probably it would never enter their heads to think of doing so to anybody but a visitor—it would be, "I haven't had time to clean myself. A woman's work, you know, is never done," and a similar apology is made to do duty for a disorderly room. We could easily give instances of estimable people whose homes and habits would illustrate our remarks, and of others where what we recommend has been the rule, much to the happiness of all parties concerned.

Appended are a few recipes and suggestions connected with household work.

Oilcloth should nover be scrubbed. Sweep it first, and then wash with lukewarm or cold water and a soft cloth. Do not use much soap or any soda, as these injure the paint.

Glasses should be rinsed in cold water; they will look brighter than if washed with warm. Never use hot water.

To keep moths from clothes of every description, put a piece of camphor in a linen bag and keep it in the drawers.

Keep bread in an earthenware pan, covered over to protect it from dust, mice, &c. Wipe the pan out carefully twice a week.

Do not let the mending get behindhand.

Never throw away linen or cotton rags; they are handy for many purposes, and are sure to be wanted some time or other.

Grease-stains may be taken out of the hearth by covering the spot with a shovelful of hot coals. To take similar spots out of boards, make a little

paste with fuller's earth and cover the stains with it. After some hours remove and well scrub the boards.

Old soft towels, pieces of old cotton gowns, sheets, &c., make good ironvipers.

To clean paint wash with lukewarm water and a soft cloth; do not use much soap or hot water if it can be avoided.

If you wish to put away knives, fire-irons, or other steel articles not in use, clean them thoroughly and rub them over with a little mutton suet (not dripping).

In mending sheets, shirts, &c., put the pieces sufficiently large. If the parts round the new piece are too thin they will soon give way.

It is a good plan to put balls or reels of cotton into little bags, leaving the ends out.

Keep matches out of the reach of children. Many accidents have occurred through neglect of this simple precaution.

Never put knives and forks away without wiping or washing them.

After washing examine shirts, &c., to see that all the buttons are on.

To take ink-stains out of the floors, cover the spots with moist chloride of lime.

Be careful to sift the cinders, so that nothing but the ash may be thrown away. It may seem unnecessary to give this caution, but a great deal of fuel is wasted for want of care.

It will be found economical now and then to purchase a little coke to burn with coal. It makes a hot, bright fire for a winter's evening, and, from the absence of flame, is also suitable for a roasting or ironing fire if made up in time.

Candles have almost universally been replaced by parafine or petroleum lamps, and we know of nothing better or cheaper—the light they give is decidedly preferable to gas, and is quite as safe. As, however, explosions have occurred, we give the only two precautions necessary to avoid them:—
(1.) Do not fill the lamp too near a light, because if the lamp should happen to be hot, and the oil of an inferior quality, an explosive vapour may be given off. (2.) When the lamp is to be extinguished turn the light down, but do not blow it out. Sometimes with inferior oils this may be dangerous. The light is always brighter if the new wick is carefully aired before it is put into the lamp.

#### 23.—Vermin.

To clear a house of beetles is a task which requires care; but it can be done. The first step in the process is to leave nothing about for them to eat. No crumbs are to be shaken into the fireplace, and none are to be allowed to remain on the floor. Then procure from the chemist or cilshop a small pot of phosphor paste; spread a little of this paste on pieces of bread and butter, and put them where the beetles can get at them readily. Do not give the cat or dog a chance of eating the poisoned bread and butter. Remember if there is anything lying about for the beetles to feed on they will probably not touch the phosphor paste. We have cleared more than one house in this way.

Rats and Mice.—The best way of getting rid of rats and mice is to keep a good cat. Some people use poison, which we can scarcely recommend; because a dead rat in a hole smells strong. Others use traps, which would be a good plan if it were not that both rats and mice learn to avoid them.

Bugs.—There are a great many infallible remedies against bugs, but we do not think there is one worth recommending; vermin powder, camphor bags, and herbs have their several advocates, but simple careful cleanliness is the only effective remedy. If a room is really infested with bugs, the paper should be torn down and the walls scraped and repapered, or the vermin may be killed with sulphur fumigation (see index, "FUMIGATION"). After this examine the bedsteads if they are wooden ones, and fill up every place likely to harbour the insects with grease, or, if small cracks, with soap. Never let dust accumulate under the bedsteads; wash the floor once a week with lime-water—not chloride of lime—and do not let a day pass without looking over the bedclothes. The bugs will soon cease to be anything but occasional visitors.

Fleas may generally be kept under by hunting them regularly, and washing the floor occasionally with lime-water. Both bugs and fleas lay their eggs in dust; lime-water destroys them.

Flies.—If you wish to avoid a plague of flies keep the rooms clean; don't leave food about, and keep the place properly ventilated.

### WASHING - DAY.

A LITTLE forethought and care would really deprive the washing-day of half its terrors, but to do this the soiled linen must not be allowed to accumulate. In a small family once a fortnight will sometimes be most convenient for washing, in others it is necessary to wash once a week. Where the income allows it, the larger articles—sheets, shirts, blankets, &c.—may be put out; many families can really afford to do this, and it adds much to the comfort of the house, and relieves the wife of a great deal of hard labour. Sheets require changing once affortnight, at least, in summer time; in the winter they may remain unchanged longer. Blankets should not be washed too often; with care they may be used for a long time. Pillow-cases should be changed once a week. A cold dinner should always be provided for washing-day, and it is often convenient for the husband to take his dinner with him to business.

### 24.—Preparation Overnight.

ALL possible preparation should be made overnight, and it must be carefully borne in mind that different articles require different treatment. The evening's preparation consists in looking over the things to be weaked, and

if any of them happen to have ink-spots dip the part stained into hot water, spread it smoothly on a plate, and rub it with a little salts of sorrel or oxalio acid, using salts of sorrel by preference, as it is less likely to injure the fabric, which oxalic acid is sure to do unless great care is taken. It is, moreover, a strong poison, and therefore dangerous to leave about. Remember, however, that neither of these must be used for coloured articles, as they would inevitably discharge the colours. Rinse in cold water until all the salts have been got rid of. Grease-spots may be removed by yellow soap well rubbed in, and rinsing. The sheets and fine linen should be laid in soak in lukewarm water in which a little soda has been dissolved. For greasy cloths, stockings, &c., make a strong lye with Hudson's washing powder, according to directions on the wrapper. Rinse each article in this liquid to wet it thoroughly, and leave them in soak till morning with sufficient of the

#### 25.—Washing.

water to cover them. In the morning take the sheets and body-linen first, removing each article from the lye in which they have been soaked: rinse. rub, wring, and lay them aside until the tub is empty. Then pour off the dirty liquid and refill the tub with tolerably warm water, into which each article should be plunged, scaped, and rubbed. In rubbing be careful to rub one surface against the other, so as to save the hands as much as possible and economise time, as the work is sooner got through. For coarse clothes such as are worn by some mechanics in their occupations, a board and proper brush-such as may be obtained at most respectable oilshops-is a great assistance. The first washing being accomplished the linen should be put into a second water as hot as the hand can bear and again rubbed over. especially the dirtier parts; they may then be wrung out, carefully soaped. and thrown into the copper, with cold, or nearly cold, water in which a tea. spoonful of soda to every two gallons of water has been dissolved. Allow them to boil, say for a quarter of an hour, then take them out and drain, after which they should be rinsed in abundance of cold water tinged with blue, and again wrung out and hung up to dry.

Coloured muslins and cottons should neither be left to soak nor be washed with soda, or the colour will probably be discharged. They should be put into cold water and washed at once with common yellow soap, which should be rinsed off immediately. When thoroughly washed, rinse in succession in waters in which common salt has been dissolved, one handful to three or four gallons, rinse gently, and hang out to dry.

For woollens use lukewarm water and yellow soap, and rinse thoroughly. Hot water is likely to shrink them.

Silk should be washed in cold water and rinsed in salt water. In washing adkerchiefs, especially when they have been much used, a little salt thrown the water will remove nearly all the disagrecableness of the task.

### 26.-Drying.

DEFING is a painful process where there is neither garden nor back-yard attached to the house, and it happens more frequently than it ought to do that the home of the mechanic is unprovided with either yard or copper. Where this is the case, and it is necessary to wash at home, the discomfort must be borne as patiently as possible until the family can remove to another habitation where the accommodation is afforded. The only possible alleviation which we can suggest to those who are so unhappily situated is to give out as much washing as they can afford, and to wash the smaller articles as occasion serves, a few at a time.

In several parts of London and in some of the provincial towns baths and washhouses have been erected for the accommodation of those who have no convenience for washing at home.

### 27.—Starching and Ironing.

SHEETS, towels, tablecloths, and many articles of underclothing are not ironed, but should be sent out to be mangled.

To Make Starch.—Allow one-quarter pint of cold water and one quart of boiling water to every two tablespoonfuls of starch. Put the starch into a tolerably large basin, pour over it the cold water, and stir the mixture well with a wooden spoon until it is perfectly smooth and free from lumps. Then take the basin to the fire, and whilst the water is actually boiling in the kettle pour it over the starch, stirring it the whole time. If made properly in this manner the starch will require no further boiling; but should the water not be boiling when added to the starch it will not thicken, and must be put into a clean saucepan and stirred over the fire until it boils. Take it off the fire and strain it into a clean basin, cover it up to prevent a skin forming on the top, and when sufficiently cool that the hand may be borne in it, starch the things. Many people stir round two or three times in the starch a piece of wax candle, which prevents the iron from sticking, and gives a smooth and shiny appearance to the linen when ironed.

When the "things to be starched" are washed, dried, and taken off the lines, they should be dipped into the hot starch, made as directed, squeezed out of it, and then just dipped into cold water and immediately squeezed dry. If fine things are wrung or roughly used they are very liable to tear, so too much care cannot be exercised in this respect. If the article is lace, clap it between the hands a few times, which will assist to clear it, then have ready laid out on the table a large clean towel or cloth; shake out the starched things, lay them on the cloth, and roll it up tightly, and let it remain for three or four hours, when the things will be ready to iron.

It is a good plan to try the heat of the iron on a coarse cloth or apron before ironing anything fine; there is then no danger of scorching.

The fronts of shirts should be ironed on a smaller board covered with flannel, and placed between the back and front.

### HOUSEHOLD ECONOMY.

"LIVING from hand to mouth" is a very expressive phrase, and a bad plan. It is generally caused by want of care, and always leads to great waste. Most working-men receive regular wages when in work; and those who are engaged on piece-work, and therefore liable to have good and bad weeks. know pretty well what they will receive taking one week with another, and consequently have the opportunity of adjusting their outlay to their income. There are many who do this, but there are also a great many who do not, and in thousands of families where good wages are earned the money received comes as it goes. When it comes in they live well, and spend wastefully; when it is gone, or nearly so, they fare badly, and wait for the next supply to spend as before. The wife cannot buy the Sunday dinner until the Saturday's wages are received, and when any extra purchase has to be made it is done by weekly instalments. To meet this state of things we have Christmas clubs, goose clubs, money clubs, coal clubs, and credit drapers. Scores are run up for almost all articles of domestic use: and in shops of various kinds "Weekly payments taken here" is supposed to be an especially attractive announcement.

Now there can be no real economy exercised in a household where there is not some power of self-restraint in the matter of outlay, and one of the first lessons in housekeeping is how to save sufficient to be able to go into the market and buy with the money in hand. We know that the very word "economy" is distasteful to some persons, but we believe a great many would be surprised if they were to go over a month's spendings and total the loss occasioned by carelessness and improvidence.

### 28.-Coals by the "Hundred."

For instance, while we write, the retail shops are selling the best coals at 1s. 8d. per hundredweight, which is equal to 33s. 6d. per ton, and the number of families who are purchasing by the hundredweight is simply incalculable. These so-called "best" coals, however, are very seldom those advertised as "best" by the principal merchants, but correspond to their "seconds," for which they are charging 28s. Here, then, is a direct loss of the difference between 28s. and 33s. 6d., equal to 5s. 6d. But this is not all. The current price of good Derbyshire coal in London is 25s. Our own judgment—the result of experience—is that the Derbyshire coal is practically equal to Wallsend, but we have put the matter before a friend who has had a long and large experience in the trade, and he confirms our opinion. We have, therefore, a common loss amongst a class who can ill afford to waste so much, of one-quarter in their outlay for one of the necessaries of life.

#### 29.—Coal Clubs.

THERE is little, if any, advantage in coal clubs when once the habit of saving has been acquired. They are generally held at publichouses, and the landlord expects to be paid for the use of his rooms by the money spent in them for drink. The management of the club takes something out of every share, and although the coal-merchant makes a reduction in price in consideration of the quantity to be supplied, it seldom happens that anything but the highest-priced coal is ordered; and, putting all the expenses together, it will be found that by saving up the money at home and buying at the proper time, a thorough good inland coal would leave the purchaser some shillings in pocket.

#### 30.-Christmas Clubs.

For Christmas clubs, and especially "goose clubs," there is still less to be said. At the very best the money is paid in weekly instalments to somebody else to take care of, that at a given time that somebody may supply what could be obtained elsewhere just as well, and often at a cheaper rate. Of course, if a shopkeeper is at the trouble of receiving the money in, say, thirteen weekly payments instead of in one sum, he must be paid for his trouble one way or another. These remarks apply principally to "Christmas clubs." "Goose clubs" are generally mere publichouse schemes to get people to drink, and a Christmas goose purchased in this way is about the most expensive article that a working-man can buy.

### 31.-Tallymen.

"TALLYMEN" and "credit drapers" have been the ruin of so many families that we cannot too seriously urge our readers to have nothing whatever to do with them. We know all that can be said in their favour, and willingly acknowledge that some who engage in the trade are men of character; but under the most favourable circumstances a tallyman should never be allowed to get a footing in a house. In the first place, there is always a temptation to buy things that are not wanted, or could be done without, when they may be had upon the apparently easy terms of paying for them weekly. The strongest possible check upon involuntary extravagance is the necessity of paying ready money, and the strongest possible inducement to unnecessary outlay is the opportunity of getting things on credit. In the next place, the prices charged are generally excessive. A moment's reflection will show that it must be so. To carry on a good tally trade is very hard work, a great many miles are walked, and a good deal of time is spent and trouble incurred in keeping accounts, and, besides this, there are many bad debts. A man must not only be paid for his time and trouble, he must make the customers who do keep up their payments compensate him for his losses. The consequence is that a tallyman usually charges sixteen, eighteen, or twenty shillings for goods that could be bought with ready money in the open market for ten shillings; and it is a part of his business to make his charges in such a way as to hide their extravagance as much as possible. And it is also a part of his business to get his customers "under his thumb," so that they shall not go elsewhere to buy, which they can scarcely do while his bills remain unpaid. To break through the habit of buying on credit, and paying by instalments, is one of the most difficult things possible when once it has been formed.

#### 32.-Loan Societies.

It is necessary to add a few words of caution respecting loan societies, which for the most part live and prosper on the improvidence of their customers. Some of them are honest, and others dishonest; but they are, at the best, dangerous things to have anything to do with. We have had an opportunity of seeing something of the working of honestly-conducted societies, and know that they bring in very large profits besides paying handsomely for management, and to do this the borrowers, in one way or another, must be made to pay heavily for the loans they receive. If this is the case with the honestly-worked concerns, we leave our readers to imagine what the unscrupulous and dishonest do. Every now and then some more than usually bad case is made public, but for one piece of injustice and extortion that comes to light, hundreds remain unknown except by those who are immediately connected with the sufferers, and many a family has been in this way totally ruined.

### 33.—Post Office Savings Banks.

WHAT we wish to urge upon our readers now is, to cultivate the habit of spending with care and of making it a rule to lay by a little to meet an emergency. There are many ways of doing this. The Post Office Savings Bank is one very convenient method. The only limitations are—that po depositor may put in more than thirty pounds in one year, or have altogether a larger sum at one time than one hundred and fifty pounds. Not less than one shilling is received as a deposit, and all payments must consist of even shillings—no sixpences or other proportions of a shilling are taken. A person wishing to open an account has simply to fill up a form, which may be had at any money-order office, and hand it in with one or more shillings as may be convenient. In return, he will receive a book, free of charge, with the amount entered and signed for, and in the course of a day or two he will get a further acknowledgment by post from the head office. When he has a further payment to make the depositor must take his book to the same or another money-order office, and hand it in with the sum he wishes to put in; for this he will get a signature as before, and in due course an acknowledgment from the head office, and so on.

Should it be necessary to withdraw the whole or a part of the money, a notice to that effect can be obtained at any money-order office, which, when filled up with the particulars, is to be posted to the general office, and an order on the place named in the notice, for payment of the principal and interest, is returned through the post.

### 84.—Division of Income.

As a first step towards a family living within its income a proper division should be made of the amount—so much for ordinary housekeeping, so much for rent where the payments are by the month or quarter, so much for coals (which, as we have said, should be purchased by the ton or half-ton), clothing, club, &c. Within the amounts so set apart it will be the wife's endeavour to keep her expenses, but what proportion they are to bear to the wages can be settled only by careful thought and mutual counsel between husband and wife.

### MARKETING.

A GOOD deal of care is required in marketing, especially for a large family with a limited income, and we shall now proceed to offer a few hints upon those points that seem most important.

#### 35.-A Feast and a Fast.

WHATEVER the sum set apart for housekeeping it will be necessary to remember that it is to last through the week, and that a week consists of seven days. Many people seem to forget this, and provide so lavishly for Sunday and Monday that, unless they run into debt, they have "a feast and a fast"—abundance at the beginning and little or nothing at the end. We have known a working man whose earnings were so small and precarious that his wife was obliged to go out "charing," sit down to a Sunday's dinner consisting of roast lamb, new potatoes at twopence-halfpenuy per pound, and currant pudding made with fruit at sixpence per quart; and we have also known people whose children have scarcely had shoes to their feet, purchase peas at a shilling the peck.

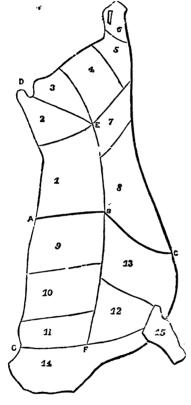
### 36.-Marketing List.

THE best plan to avoid unnecessary and lavish expenditure is to sit down before making the weekly purchases and carefully write out the list of things required—tea, sugar, coffee, flour, potatoes, soap, candles, oil, wood, blacklead, blacking, &c.

It is not generally wise to decide beforehand what the joint of meat is to be. Sometimes there is a run upon the market for particular parts, so as to render them difficult to buy except at an advanced price, while other parts may be proportionately cheap. It is often possible in this way to secure the primest joints at a low rate. It is, however, important to remember that the inferior parts of the best meat are far better than the best joints of inferior meat.. This is a golden rule always to be acted on.

#### 37.—Beef.

THE following woodcut shows the manner in which a side of beef is cut up for the London market:—



### HIND QUARTER.

- 1. Sirloin. The two sirloins cut together in one joint form a "baron."
- 2. Rump. The finest part for steaks.
  - 3. Aitch bone. Boiling piece.
  - 4. Buttock. Prime boiling piece.
- 5. Mouse round. Boiling or stewing.
  - 6. Hock. Stewing.
- 7. Thick flank, cut with the udder fat. Primest boiling piece.
  - 8. Thin flank. Boiling.

#### FORE QUARTER.

- 9. Five ribs, called the fore rib. Prime roasting piece.
- Four ribs, called the middle rib. A very economical joint for roasting.
- Two ribs, called the chuck rib. Used for second quality of steaks.
- 12. Leg of mutton piece. The muscles (or "lean") of the shoulder dissected from the breast.
- 13. Brisket or breast. Used for boiling when salted.
- 14. Neck, clod, and stekingpiece. For soups, gravies, pies, sausages, &c.

15. Shin. Stewing.

The sirloin, the rump-steak piece, and the fore rib are considered first class joints. The buttock, the thick flank, and the middle rib are considered second class meat. The aitch bone, the mouse round, the thin flank, the chuck, the leg of mutton piece, and the brisket are regarded as third class meat. The neck, clod, and sticking piece, the hock, and the shin are called fourth and fifth class meat.

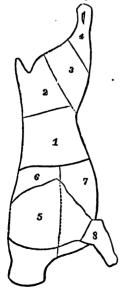
In buying meat a careful observer soon learns to distinguish its quality, but it is not easy to describe its appearance so as to make a good judge of an unpractised buyer. Beef should have an open grain, smooth and juicy, soft to the touch, and of a rich carnation colour. The fat is a fine cream colour; when the animal has been fed upon oilcake the fat will be of a deeper colour. The bone should be small and the flesh full.

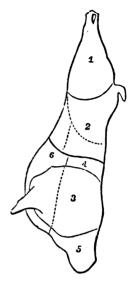
#### 38.-Mutton.

THE London method of cutting up a sheep is shown in the woodcut.

No. 1 is the leg; No. 2 the loin—two loins cut in one piece is a saddle of mutton; No. 3 is the shoulder; Nos. 4 and 5 the neck—No. 5 being the "scrag;" No. 6 the breast. A haunch of mutton is the leg and as much of the loin as is shown by the dotted line.

Mutton should be of a rich red colour, close in the grain, and juicy; whitish in the fat, but not shiny and tallowy. The flesh should pinch tender, and rise again when dented with the finger.





39.—Veal.

VEAL is usually cut into joints as shown below. The manner of cutting up veal for the English market is to divide the carcass into four quarters, with eleven ribs to each fore quarter, which are again subdivided into joints, as exemplified on the cut.

Hind Quarter — 1. The loin. 2. The chump, consisting of rump and hook-bone.

3. The fillet. 4. The hook, or hind knuckle.

Fore Quarter—5. The shoulder. 6. The neck. 7. The breast. 8. The fore knuckle.

Veal must be fresh killed to be good, and its general appearance alters so quickly that it is easy to tell when it is stale. The lean should be white, smooth, and juicy; the fat white, firm, and abundant. Stale veal is moist and clammy, the joints are flabby and pliable, and it has a faint musty smell. It ought to be mentioned that as the animals are now frequently not bled to death as they used to be, the flesh is generally of a somewhat deeper colour, but is really richer and



nicer. It is to be hoped that the practice of bleeding to death will soon be altogether discontinued.

#### 40.-Pork.

WHEN a pig is cut up for pork, it is generally done as shown below. The side is divided with nine ribs to the fore quarter, and the following is an enumeration of the joints in the two respective quarters:—

Hind Quarter-1. The leg. 2. The loin. 3. The spring or belly.

Fore Quarter-4. The hand. 5. The fore loin to the cheek.

Fresh pork—The leg, loin, fore loin, and cheek are the parts usually selected for reasting (or baking).

Salt pork—The parts selected for boiling (when salted) are the leg, the belly, the hand, and the cheek.

#### 41.-Bacon.

In purchasing bacon, the cheapest parts will generally be the fore gammon and collar, both of which are really

very good, but require a little more boiling than the others. The gammon and ribs are the choicest parts, and usually the dearest.

### 42.—Size of Joints.

THE size of the joint purchased must be determined by circumstances. The natural rule of a small joint for a small family and a larger one for a large family cannot always be acted on, at all events there may sometimes be good reason for not doing so. Occasionally it happens that small joints are much dearer than large ones, and the butcher may not be willing to divide them without charging more. We have known small families in which it was the almost invariable practice to buy sufficient meat on the Saturday to last the week through, summer and winter, but it is not a good plan. Cooked meat begins to lose its flavour after the second day; it is not objectionable on the third, but if brought to table after that it will almost always be eaten without relish, and requires re-cooking. We give various methods of doing this elsewhere. A better plan still, when, for the sake of economy or other sufficient reason, a large joint is bought and the weather will allow of the meat being kept, is to take off some cutlets, chops, or steaks, according to the nature of the joint, and prepare them for the first day's dinner, leaving the remainder to be cooked next day; or one part may be cooked at once, and the other put into salt; or one half may be plunged into boiling water and kept boiling for, say, a quarter of an hour, and then put aside in a cool place, to be properly cooked when wanted.

#### 43.—Table of Prices.

BUTCHEES buy and sell by the stone of eight pounds. When a retail customer inquires the price, he replies so much "por pound," say, for example,

eightpence; but when a joint has been selected, he will probably call out to his assistant to weigh it at 5s. 4d.—that is, he is to weigh the meat and charge at the rate of 5s. 4d. the eight pounds.

8.	d.			d.	-	l s.	d			d.	
3	8	per sto	ne is	51 :	per lb.	6	0	per stor	10 is	9	per lb.
4	0	٠,,	,,	6	,,	6	4	٠,,	,,	91	٠,,
4	4	,,	,,	61	"	6	8	"	,,	10	,,
4	8	,,	,,	7.	,,	7	0	,,	,,	103	, ,,
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5	4	,,	,,	8	,,	7	8	,,	,,	113	,,
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#### 44.—Rabbits.

OSTEND rabbits are imported into this country in large numbers, and may sometimes be purchased cheaply. If necessary, they can be partially cooked (see end of paragraph 42), and afterwards boiled with pork or put into a pudding or pie, or roasted. The same plan of partly cooking in order to keep them sweet can be adopted with poultry when, as is sometimes the case, the market is overstocked.

#### 45.—Australian Meat.

THERE is an unfortunate prejudice against the tinned Australian meat which we really cannot understand. When properly prepared it makes a wholesome and profitable dish, especially in cold weather, when such food is most agreeable. When purchasing a whole tin see that it does not bulge out anywhere. This is occasionally the case, though rarely, and when it does occur is a sure sign that the meat is bad, the bulging out being occasioned by the gases given off by the decaying food. For the best method of preparing see Australian Meat in index.

#### 46.-Fish.

THERE is nothing which fluctuates in value more than fish, the supply being sometimes enormous and at other times small. It is dear at any price unless unmistakably fresh, and when stale is both disagreeable and unwholesome.

41.—HVOII dupois Weight.
16 Drams make 1 Ounce.
16 Ounces 1 Pound.
8 Pounds {1 Stone (London Meat Market).
28 Pounds 1 Quarter.
4 Quarters, or 112 lbs. 1 Hundredweight.
20 Hundredweight 1 Ton.
48.—Apothecaries' Weight.
20 Grains make 1 Scruple. 3 Scruples 1 Dram.
20 Grains make 1 Scruple. 3 Scruples 1 Dram. 8 Drams 1 Ounce.
20 Grains make 1 Scruple. 3 Scruples 1 Dram. 8 Drams 1 Ounce. 12 Ounces 1 Pound.
20 Grains make 1 Scruple. 3 Scruples 1 Dram. 8 Drams 1 Ounce. 12 Ounces 1 Pound. Anotheraries presser prescriptions.
20 Grains make 1 Scruple. 3 Scruples 1 Dram. 8 Drams 1 Ounce. 12 Ounces 1 Pound. Apothecaries prepare prescriptions by this weight, but buy and sell by
20 Grains make 1 Scruple. 3 Scruples 1 Dram. 8 Drams 1 Ounce. 12 Ounces 1 Pound. Anotheraries presser prescriptions.

47 - Amoirdunois Woight

### 49.—Wine Measure.

4 Gills make	1 Pint.
2 Pints	1 Quart.
4 Quarts	1 Gallon.
10 Gallons	1 Anker of Brandy
18 Gallons	1 Runlet.
311 Gallons	Half a Hogshead.
42 Gallons	
63 Gallons	1 Hogshead.
84 Gallons	1 Puncheon.
2 Hogsheads,	)
or 126 Gallons	} 1 Pipe or Butt.
2 Pipes, or 252 Gallons	) . m
Gallons	f I Tun.

## 50.-Ale and Beer Measure.

- 2 Pints make 1 Quart. Quarts, or 6 1 Gallon.
- 1 Firkin of Ale or Bottles 9 Gallons .
- 2 Firkins, or 18 1 Kilderkin.
- 2 Kilderkins, or 1 Barrel.
- 30 Chancing
  11 Barrel, or 54
  Gallons . 1 Hogshead.
- 1 Puncheon. 2 Barrels 3 Barrels 1 Butt.

## 51.-Dry Measure.

2 Pints make	1 Quart.
2 Quarts	1 Pottle.
2 Pottles	
2 Gallons	1 Peck.
4 Pecks	1 Bushel.
2 Bushels	1 Strike.
4 Bushels	1 Coomb.
2 Coombs	1 Quarter.

4 Quarters . . 1 Chaldron. 5 Quarters . 1 Wey or Load. 2 Weys . . 1 Last.

All grain, such as Barley, Wheat, Oats, Peas, &c., is measured in this way.

## 52.-Long Measure.

3	Barleyc	orn	s I	nak	te 1 Inch.
12	Inches				. 1 Foot.
3	Feet .				. 1 Yard.
6	Feet .				. 1 Fathom.
5 <del>1</del>	Yards				1 Rod, Pole, or Perch.
4	Rods.	•		•	1 Chain of Land.
40	Poles				. 1 Furlong.

# 8 Furlongs, or 1760 } 1 Mile.

3 Miles. 1 League. 60 Geographical, or

691 English Statute 1 Degree. 

the Globe.

Distances, lengths, heights, depths, &c., of places or things are measured by this measure.

## 53.—Paper.

20	Sheets make	1 Quire of Outsides.
	Sheets	1 Quire of Insides.

- 20 Quires . . 1 Ream.
  21½ Quires, or 1 Printer's Ream.
  516 Sheets
- 2 Reams . . 1 Bundle. 10 Reams . . 1 Bale.

There are two outside or damaged quires in a Ream of Paper.

## 54.—The Quarter Days.

25th March. Lady Day . Midsummer Day . 24th June. Michaelmas Day . 29th September. Christmas Day . 25th December.

## 55.—To find Leap Year.

Leap-year (consisting of 366 days) is found by dividing the year of Our Lord (Anno Domini, or A.D.) by 4. If there be no remainder, it is Leapyear; if otherwise, the remainder shows how many years it is after Leap-year. Thus, 1876 divided by 4 gives 469, and as there is no remainder, it is by the rule Leap-year.

# 56.—Table showing the Yearly Value of Rent, Wages. and other Weekly Payments.

WEEK.	YEAR.	WEEK. YEAR.	WEEK.	YEAR.
s. d.	£ s. d.	s. d. £ s. d.	s. d.	£ s. d
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02 —	088	0 10 2 3 4	16—	3 18   0
03—	0 13 0	011 — 278	17—	4 2 4
04—	0 17 4	1 0 - 2 12 0	18—	468
0 5	1 1 8	1 1 2 16 4	19—	4 11 0
0 6 -	1 6 0	12-308	1 10 —	4 15 4
07—	1 10 4	13 - 350	111 -	4 19 8
08-	1148	14 - 394	20-	540

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WEEK. YEAR.			-	WEEK.			YEAR.				WE	EK.	YEAR.						
8.	d.		£	8.	d.		8.	d.		£	8.	d.	1	8.	d.		£	8.	d.
16	1		41	16	4	- 1	17	5		45	5	8		18	9	_	48	15	0
16	2	_	42	0	8	- 1	17	6		45	10	Õ		18	10		48	19	4
16	8		42	5	0	į	17	7		45	14	4	1	18	īĭ	_	49	8	8
16	4	_	42	9	4		17	8	_	45	18	8	1	19	0	_	49	8	0
16	5	_	42	13	8		17	9	_	46	3	0	1	19	1	_	49	12	4
16	6	_		18	0		17	10		46	7	4	1	19	2		49	16	8
16	7		43	2	4	- 1	17	11		46	11	8	1	19	8.	_	50	1	0
16	8		43	6	8	- 1	18	0	_	46	16	0	1	19	4	_	50	5	4
16	9	-		11	0	i	18	1		47	0	4		19	5		50	9	8
16	10	-		15	4		18	2	_	47	4	8	1	19	6		50	14	0
16	11	_	43	19	8	- 1	18	3	_	47	9	0	1	19	7	_	50	18	4
17	0	_	44	4	0	-	18	4	_	47	13	4		19	8	_	51	2	8
17	1	_	44	8	4	- 1	18	5		47	17	8	1	19	9	_	51	7	0
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We now approach a large and important division of our subject, one upon due attention to which a great deal of the health and comfort of a family depends. No housekeeper who duly appreciates her position and the interests dependent upon her care will grudge the time and attention necessary to an intelligent apprehension, not only of rules and recipes, but of the reasons upon which they are based. We hope the time will come when the instruction given in our schools to girls and boys will make the acquirement of such knowledge easy.

Very vague notions are commonly entertained respecting food, what are the qualities which make it nourishing, and what nourishment really is. Of course a person may eat and drink, and enjoy life, for many years without knowing how his body is made, what it is made of, and why the food he eats nourishes him. Of course, also, a woman may be a "good cook," in the ordinary sense of the term, and make pleasant and wholesome dishes, without knowing why they are wholesome; but the want of such knowledge has led to immense waste, and very often to serious illness. The reader, therefore, should not "skip" the few pages we intend to occupy in explaining the nature of food and the purpose it serves, as if those things were of no practical use.

First, then, we propose to speak of the two chief classes into which food has been divided—those which produce warmth and force, and those which form flesh.

## 57.-Heat and Force Producers.

In dealing with the first kind of food, those which produce principally heat and force, we shall be best understood if we take as an illustration an object familiar to almost everybody, a common steam-engine. If we go into an engine-room we shall soon see that the motion of the machinery depends upon the heat supplied by the furnace, and that the heat of the furnace is kept up by being carefully supplied at proper intervals with suitable fuel. When the fire is damped the speed of the engine slackens, until it finally stops. When the fire is lighted, the water heats, steam is given off from the boiler, and being conveyed to the engine, the piston-rod begins to work, the wheels go round, and the whole machinery is started. There is, in fact, an exact relation between the quantity of fuel burnt and the work done—so much coal so much heat, so much heat so much work—that is, if the whole process is carefully managed and the heat produced is not wasted.

Now a large portion of the food we eat goes to supply, in a similar manner, heat and force to our bodies, without which we should be totally unable to do anything, and we should weaken down by degrees and die.

## 58.—Waste and Repair of the Body.

THERE is another point in which the steam-engine is like the human frame. Every movement of the rods, cranks, and wheels wears away their substance. The process may be slow, but it goes on until at last the parts have to be renewed, or perhaps the whole engine has to be replaced by a new one. Now a somewhat similar process goes on in the human body. Every time a weight is lifted, a step taken, a word spoken, or even a thought passes through the mind, a portion of the material of which we are made is "used up," and the used-up matter passes into the blood-vessels, to be ultimately got rid of partly through the breath and partly in other ways. Now the steam-engine. having no power to mend itself, simply works on until it is worn out; but the human body has the power of self-repair, if the means are supplied in the form of proper food; and the two processes of waste and repair go on together; and with due intervals of rest and sleep the frame is kept in health and strength. These intervals are necessary to life, because in our waking hours waste goes on faster than repair, during sleep repair goes on faster than the waste, and the force which is expended in active life has the opportunity of accumulating. In the case of children, and until growth ceases, more than this is done—the structure of the body if enlarged in every part; when we have "done growing," the healthiness of our frames is seen in the case with which we perform the duties of active life, and the readiness with which the waste of the body is repaired.

## 59.—Flesh-forming Food.

It will be readily understood that to preserve health the food we take must not only possess force and heat producing qualities, but also the material out of which the various parts of the body are built up. If we feed too

exclusively on substances which simply supply heat and force, there is but one end possible—the body will waste away until death ensues. On the other hand, over-feeding on diet rich in flesh-forming matters is not only wasteful but injurious, because it induces a tendency to disease, more matter being thrown into the blood than can be used.

#### 60.—Stimulants.

To make this clearer we must ascertain what are the foods that produce heat and force, and which of them supply the materials for the repair of the waste of the body of which we have been speaking; and, strange as it may seem, it is not the highly-spiced and "hot" foods which really give heat. These stimulate, but they do little else. Let us take again the illustration of the steam-engine and furnace. A pair of bellows might make the fire in the furnace burn more rapidly and become fiercer, until there was nothing left to be burnt, and then the fire would go out, and all the "blowing" in the world would not keep it up. In a similar manner pepper and other spices, though they flavour food, and sometimes, when taken in moderation, help digestion, are not food at all, properly speaking. They excite heat, but do not produce it.

#### 61.—Farinaceous Foods.

THE principal heat-producing substances are the "starches," sugar, and animal and vegetable fat and oils. All these contain but little of fleshforming material-some of them contain none-but they supply force and heat, and are therefore very important as food. The word "starches," however, requires explanation. If we take a raw potato and rub it down on a grater into cold water, a white substance will sink to the bottom of the vessel. Everything else may then be poured off with the water, and the white sediment left to dry, when it will be seen as a powder made up of innumerable grains of "starch," so small that they cannot be separately distinguished except under the microscope. These grains contain nearly all that is valuable in the potato. Sago, arrowroot, tapioca, and tous les mois are all "starches" obtained from different plants. They differ a little in various ways, and may be distinguished from each other when magnified: and they are principally of use, not in repairing the waste of the body, but, as we have said, in keeping up its warmth and in supplying the force which enables a person to do the work required of him. Rice, wheaten flour. oatmeal, barley meal, rye flour, maize, peas, beans, and a great many other vegetable foods, contain a good deal of starch, but they also contain fleshforming material. Sugar, fats, and oils are entirely destitute of fleshforming matters.

#### 62.—Wheat Flour and Oatmeal.

A FOUR-POUND loaf of wheaten bread will give six ounces of flesh-forming matter, with forty-one ounces of body-warming and force-producing material, besides two-thirds of mineral ashes, also wanted for use in the body, and

abt at sixteen ounces of water. Oatmeal is richer still in flesh-forming matters, as four pounds contain eight ounces of this kind of food, with forty-eight ounces of body-warming material, one ounce of mineral ashes, and about six ounces of water.

## 63.—Quantity of Food Required.

A WORKING MAN requires about five ounces of flesh-forming food and ten ounces of heat and force producers, and that is about the lowest quantity upon which he can continue to work without injury to his health. It is possible for him to get that nourishment from vegetable food alone, and there are many people who prefer to do so. We certainly do not recommend vegetarianism, believing that active labour can be more healthily and easily performed by those who use animal food; but we do recommend, both on the score of economy and health, that there should be a proper admixture of both kinds—vegetable and animal—and we should like to remove the common impression that the more flesh a man eats the stronger he becomes. More than half-a-pound of properly-cooked meat, with a fair proportion of vegetables and bread, every four-and-twenty hours is really waste, and the surplus either goes through the body unused, throwing upon the stomach a quantity of unnecessary work, or, hindering instead of assisting the vital functions, produces an unhealthy condition.

#### 64-Ultimate Elements of Food.

THERE are between sixty and seventy different substances in nature out of which everything is formed, and about fourteen of these are found in the human body-not singly, but in combination with each other. The four gases -oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and chlorine-make up the greater part. Lime and phosphorus enter largely into the brain and nerves generally—carbon, sulphur, iron, magnesium, silicon, sodium, potassium, fluorine, are the other elements. Some of these substances are familiar to everybody. Carbon is known to us as charcoal, and it forms a large part of the coal we burn in our furnaces; and it is also the principal material in furnishing warmth to the body. The nitrogen is a gas, which, when united to other substances, forms flesh; and the absence or presence of this element is the principal distinction between the flesh-forming and heat and force producing foods. Sodium and chlorine are united together in common salt, and they are used in the body for various purposes. Chlorine assists in producing the juice of the stomach, without which we could not digest our food. The other elements mentioned are supplied, some of them abundantly, all sufficiently. in most of our common foods, and partly in the water we drink, which when perfectly pure is composed of oxygen and hydrogen; but it almost always contains some proportion of mineral matter in addition.

## 65.—Preparation of Food,

It is one thing to know what is required to supply the wants of the body, and quite a different thing to select and prepare it so that it may be agreeable to the taste and easily digested. A lump of charcoal, with a few accompaniments—such as an iron tack, a grain of Epsom salts, a morsel of flint, a fragment of chalk, a pinch of salt, and a glass of water—would make a healthy and hearty meal for anybody who could digest them; but whoever prepared such a dinner and set it on the table would either be accused of making a poor joke or treated as a lunatic.

A bad cook, however, will sometimes prepare a meal pretty nearly as indigestible with more suitable and expensive material. Meat boiled so as to extract all the juices, the liquor being thrown carefully away; puddings with a close and heavy crust; potatoes ill done and hard, are brought to table and set before a hungry family, under the mistaken notion that nourishing food has been thus provided. Here and there a powerful stomach may digest badly-prepared food with comparative impunity, but many persons would suffer little less from such fare than from eating the charcoal and iron.

## 66.-The Art of Cooking.

The art of cooking consists in preparing properly-selected food in such a way that it may be easily and pleasantly used. The various elements of which we have been speaking could not be made use of if taken separately into the stomach; but through the chemistry of nature they are built up into the fruit and grains and the various animals we commonly employ as food, and we shall now proceed to describe the best and most economical methods of cooking, and to supply such information respecting the selection of them as may be of use to those for whom we write. One hint will be in place here upon a very important and much-neglected point. Let the food be varied. It is better for health, and more pleasant than a perpetual use of the same dishes, however good in themselves. Some persons can prepare two or three dishes well, and being afraid, or, for some other reason, unwilling to venture beyond the limited course, tire those whom they provide for. We shall furnish a number of good recipes, and hope they will help to secure a pleasing and acceptable variety for common use.

# MEALS.

WE now propose to pass in review the meals of a day, each of which deserves attention.

Many artizans begin work before breakfast, and require something to eat and drink previous to starting from home. We do not know of any better plan than to provide a small kettle with a spirit-lamp. These can be procured in most large towns for about 1s. 6d. The kettle holds half-a-pint of water, which can be boiled in a very short time with a small quantity of methylated spirit or "finish," which costs from 8d. to 10d. per pint. Enough water for a cup of coffee can be boiled in this manner for less than a farthing. Put the coffee into a small jug overnight and cover it up. In the morning as soon as the water boils pour it over the coffee, let it stand for a couple of minutes, and then strain it through a piece of muslin laid over a small funnel, kept quite clean, into the cup. The whole process is simple, and need not take many minutes. A slice of bread and butter to eat with the coffee may be cut just before retiring to rest and covered over with a plate. To take, as many mon do, a glass of spirits in the early morning to "keep out the cold," is a most unhealthy practice which cannot be too strongly condemned.

#### 67.-Breakfast.

A substantial breakfast is a good preparation for a day's work, and in health most persons sit down to it with an appetite. For a working man a small quantity of cooked meat or bacon or a couple of eggs are a desirable addition to bread and butter, and where this is taken no lunch is necessary, unless he is engaged in work requiring severe exertion. Oatmeal porridge is often strongly recommended for breakfast both for adults and children, and where it can be taken deserves all that can be said in its favour. To some the taste is not agreeable, but that is a difficulty usually got over very easily, as the palate soon becomes accustomed to it. In some cases porridge, unfortunately, produces irritation of the bowels, and its use has to be discontinued in consequence.

It seems needless to say that it is not economical to buy breakfast bacon in rashers. The cheapest method is to purchase a piece sufficient to last some days, and to cut the rashers as they are required.

# 68.—Oatmeal Breakfast Porridge.

Mix two tablespoonfuls of Scotch oatmeal into a smooth paste with cold water, pour over it and stir in half-a-pint of boiling water, and boil for twenty minutes, after which stir in a quarter of a pint of milk. Add sugar or salt. The porridge may be made entirely with milk or with a larger proportion of milk and less water.

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Young children should not be allowed to drink tea or coffee. Milk, bread and milk, cocoa and milk, bread and butter, or, better still, bread and dripping, are more suitable for breakfast. At six or seven years of age weak tea or coffee with an extra quantity of milk will not be hurtful. If children are allowed to get up long before breakfast-time they should have a little bread and butter or something to "stay" the stomach.

The diet of the wife, except in anticipation of maternity, may be the same in kind as that of the husband, but generally speaking a woman requires less in quantity and eats less.

#### 69.—Dinner.

DINNER is usually and properly considered the principal meal of the day, and after a substantial breakfast at, say, eight, the most suitable dinner hour is that most commonly adopted, twelve or one o'clock. We need not here repeat the suggestions made under the head of cooking, nor stop to point out how much the comfort and value of this meal depends upon good management.

For children under six years of age very little meat is required if they are otherwise properly fed. Potato with gravy, light puddings, and plenty of milk will be the most suitable diet. After that age a small quantity of meat may be given, first occasionally and then regularly. It should be selected free from gristle, cut up fine, and well masticated. Broth, not too strong, nor in too large quantities, may also be given with advantage, and a little food is required between breakfast and dinner.

#### 70.—Tea.

THE hour at which tea is taken depends partly upon the dinner hour and partly upon individual taste. We should be inclined to recommend an early tea, say four o'clock or half-past four when there is no particular reason for making it later. To the artizan who is engaged till seven or eight o'clock in the evening in the workshop, the interval between dinner and tea is frequently the most sluggish period of the day. Refreshed by his tea, he is ready for three or four hours' good work, a matter of importance for the employer when the workman is paid by time, and for both employer and workman when engaged on piecework, At home, where there is a young family, a four o'clock tea is better for the children, and to the wife the refreshing influence of the cup of tea is generally as acceptable as to any one.

## 71.—Supper.

Heavy suppers have been condemned by nearly everybody who has had occasion to speak of them. At night and during sleep digestion goes on slowly, and a mass of undigested food in the stomach produces dreams and broken rest. This meal is, however, often the most pleasant of the day. The children have been sent to rest, and an entire night lies between the workman and his daily labour. The temptation to eat much should, however, be resisted, and the lighter the repast the better. A cup of cocoa and a little

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bread and butter, a small quantity of broth, a little bread and cheese, a morsel of cold fish, an egg boiled or poached, may be taken before retiring to rest. The more simple and easy of digestion the meal is the better.

Children should never be allowed to go to bed supperless, nor to sit up late.

## 72.-Irregular Meals.

THERE is a large class of persons, such as compositors and others engaged upon the morning newspapers, who rest in the day and work all night, and whose mode of living, as to the arrangement of the meals, must necessarily differ from that of other people. "There is," says Dr. Smith, who made an extended inquiry some years ago into this subject, "much diversity in the plans pursued by different persons of the same class, some of which are, I think, prejudicial to health. The proper plan is to take a good dinner almost immediately before going to duty, as, for example, from four to six p.m., and a good meat supper at about midnight. A small breakfast should then be taken on leaving the office and before going to bed, and a good breakfast . . . on rising at twelve to two o'clock. There will thus be three good meals taken during the twenty-four hours, and the body will be sustained by nourishment at the period when exertion is made, and when the human system is at its lowest point of vigour."

In some trades artizans are required to work irregular hours, and occasionally, when there is a press of business, to continue best part of the night at their employment. In no branch of trade is this more common than with printers, who frequently go to work at the regular time in the morning, and are kept engaged until past midnight. In such cases a cup of good fresh-made coffee with an egg beaten up in it, and a slice or two of bread and butter between eight and nine o'clock, and a basin of broth about one, would carry them with something like comfort up to five or six in the morning, if it were necessary to go on till that time; but the difficulty of obtaining suitable refreshment is often very cruelly felt, and resort is had to stimulants, which, affording temporary relief, do serious harm to the constitution. The question is really not what would be best, but what can be obtained, and we can only recommend those who are compelled to work long hours at irregular intervals to make the best arrangements possible to obtain light refreshments at about the times mentioned, and by all means to avoid full meals and heavy and indigestible foods, using stimulants with scrupulous moderation.

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34 BREAD.

## BREAD.

BREAD in this country is made from wheat. Rye bread is used extensively in foreign countries, but as it is seldom obtainable here, and is in several respects inferior to wheaten bread, we need not speak of it. There are, however, several kinds of bread made from various descriptions of flour—that is, flour more or less freed from bran—and as opinions differ as to their merits it may be worth while to consider which is best.

#### 73.-Brown Bread.

WHEN the miller has to supply brown meal he simply grinds the wheat and sends it home without further preparation. The bread made from this is the brown bread, recommended by many persons as containing more nutriment than any other because nothing has been taken out of the grain. It has also been recommended to people whose bowels do not act freely because it helps to keep them "open." There are, however, one or two facts overlooked in this reasoning. The outer part of the "bran" is covered by a very thin layer of flint, which is quite indigestible, and it is the passage of these flinty indigestible fragments through the intestines, irritating their inner surface as they pass, that produces the action of the bowels, sometimes mild and sometimes more violent. Where no effect, therefore, is produced there is no advantage gained by swallowing the indigestible and innutritions outer bran, and where it does produce an effect it is one that might more safely and far better be secured by proper medicines, especially as the flinty layer of the bran frequently causes indigestion. Something might perhaps be said in its favour if brown bread were much lower in price, but this is not the case, and in buying it we give the value of a better for an inferior article.

When whiter flours are required, the meal as it leaves the stones in the mill is passed through a series of sieves, and the "best" flour is sent to market after it has been deprived, not only of the outer scales, but all the inner ones, and the flour is then perfectly white. Bread made from this flour is much higher in price, and is seldom to be bought except in "genteel" neighbourhoods. The artizan need not regret his inability to afford the "best" bread. It is an expensive luxury, in no sense better, but somewhat less nourishing, than the bread made from "households" or "seconds" flour.

# 74.-"Households" Bread.

Good "households" bread is that which is commonly sold in all large towns for general use. It is made of flour from which all the coarse bran has been sifted, but it retains a small proportion of the inner bran or sharps and is therefore not so white as the "best;" but as the inner husk is not BREAD. 85

coated with flint like the outer husk, and contains some valuable nutritious properties in a digestible form, good households bread is really superior to either of the other qualities.

In the manufacture of bread, either at home or by the baker, it is usual to employ yeast to make it "light." The yeast being mixed with the dough sets up a ferment, in the course of which a quantity of carbonic acid gas is given off, and this, bubbling up through the dough, prevents it from being "close" like a biscuit. Sometimes "baking-powder" is used for home-made bread, but although a good powder—a recipe for which we give elsewhere—is vary useful for cakes and pastry generally, it is hardly suitable for bread. It is far better to employ the brower's yeast or the German yeast, either of which can be obtained in most parts of the country without difficulty.

There is another method of making bread very extensively employed in which no forment is used. By the employment of a special apparatus carbonic acid gas is passed into the dough for the same purpose and with the same result as that obtained by yeast. The "aërated bread" so produced is neither more nor less nutritious than the fermented bread. To some persons the taste is agreeable, especially for a change; others find it insipid. It is light, good, and wholesome.

#### 75.-Home-Made Bread.

THE quality of baker's bread has improved so much, especially since the advent of free trade, which has given us access to all the markets of the world, that there is but little advantage in making it at home. Even when every convenience is at hand it gives a great deal of trouble, and every now and then, until sufficient experience has been gained, a bad baking occurs, and then the bread is heavy and indigestible. There is no doubt that many bakers still put alum in their bread; it causes the flour to take up more water than it otherwise would, and enables them to work up an inferior quality. Sometimes potate starch or maize is added to the flour, but as neither of these is injurious the practice is not so reprehensible. There is certainly less adulteration than there used to be, and there is less motive for it; and, notwithstanding all that can be said in favour of home-made bread, we can scarcely recommend our readers to attempt baking for themselves.

#### 76.-New Bread.

New bread should never be supplied to a family; the principal objection is that it is seldom masticated properly, and therefore becomes indigestible. It is better to put it on the table one day old; it is then sufficiently moist to be agreeable, and is both more economical and wholesome. It should also be purchased in "half-quarterns," as the baking of the quartern loaf is sometimes less perfect.

#### 77.—Waste of Bread.

THE waste of bread in some families is so great that we feel it necessary to add a few words of caution and counsel. We do not know any article which requires greater care in purchasing. It is always wanted; whatever

36 MILK.

else is in the house bread is required, but the consumption fluctuates from day to day, and it is easy to get a lot of stale pieces. In many families these are allowed to accumulate, and are ultimately thrown away in defiance of every principle of economy. One very good method of preventing waste when the bread is beginning to get rather staler than is agreeable is to make for the children, where there is a family, a

#### 78.—Basin of Bread and Milk.

BREAK up the stale bread into small pieces and put them in a basin, moisten with a small quantity of boiling water, and let it stand for a minute or two. Boil sufficient milk, to which add a little sugar, and pour over.

Bread and milk is equally good and nourishing for a grown-up person, but we have suggested it for children to avoid offending a common prejudice.

#### 79.-How to Make Stale Bread New.

Ir pieces of stale bread, no matter how dry, are dipped in hot water, drained, and baked in an oven or toasted before the fire, they will be nearly or quite equal to new. Stale bread may also be used for puddings.

Wheat, and therefore the bread made from it, supplies both heat and flesh-forming material. In 100 pounds weight of wheat there are about 14lbs. of water, of flesh-producers rather more than 14lbs., force and heat producers 69lb., and about one pound and a-half of mineral matter.

# MILK.

"This is one of the most important of the foods which Nature has supplied for the use of man, since it contains all the elements of nutrition within itself, and in the most digestible form." A moment's reflection will satisfy us that this statement must be true, since the young of so many animals live upon milk alone, and human beings in their earliest infancy are nourished in the same manner. It must contain, therefore, not only heat and force producing elements, but the material for building up all the various parts of the body.

The milk of all animals has the same general composition, and does not differ greatly from human milk. That of the cow contains more cream and sugar, as well as more caseine, the substance which is required especially in the manufacture of cheese; it differs also from that of the goat, the ass, the sheep, the mare, and the camel, all of which are commonly used in some countries, and are, some of them, occasionally prescribed in cases of sickness in this. Milk, however, varies considerably in the same animal according to the food supplied. A cow fed upon grass gives more cream than one fed of dry foods, and other variations are produced by oilcake or grains.

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#### 80.-New Skim Milk.

WHEN the greater part of the cream has been taken from milk it is known by the name of "skim" milk, and is, of course, so much the poorer for the operation. It would be a great mistake, however, to suppose that "skim" milk has been deprived of all, or even the chief part of, its nourishment. Cream is simply a rich fat, and, as we have already seen, fat is not a flesh-former, however valuable it may be as a heat-producer. "Skim" milk, therefore, may be used in all puddings, and for dishes made with other heat and force producing materials, with as much advantage as new milk. Half-an-ounce of fat or arrowroot to a pint of skim milk would make it quite as nourishing as the best new milk.

#### 81.—Preserved Milk.

PRESERVED milk sold in sealed cans has of late years been introduced into this country, and it may be desirable to say a few words respecting its use. It is manufactured by evaporating a great part of the water which all milk contains naturally, and adding a quantity of sugar. Its advantages are that it is agreeable to the taste, it will keep almost any length of time sealed up in the cans, and for a long while after they have been opened; it is therefore always handy, and as much or as little of it can be used as may be wanted. Its disadvantages are that it cannot be safely given to infants, being apt to produce diarrhose; nor is it so nourishing, as a part of the bulk is made up by the added sugar. For many purposes, however, it will be found very useful.

#### 82.—Butter Milk

CAN seldom be obtained in large cities; when it can be got it is well to remember that it is as nutritious as "skim" milk, and therefore, with the addition of fat, equal to new.

# TEA, COFFEE, AND COCOA.

#### 83.-Coffee.

TEA, coffee, and cocca are the favourite breakfast beverages in English families of every grade, coffee being generally preferred. It is seldom used, either here or on the Continent, in a pure state, a mixture of coffee and chicory being almost universally employed, both on the score of taste and economy. The proportion used should be about equal parts of each. Personally we have an aversion to chicory, and for the sake of those whose tastes are like our own we give the best method of making a cup of

#### 84.—Pure Coffee.

Pur one ounce of fresh roasted, fresh ground, good coffee into a brown tearthenware jug and put it before the fire to get hot, stirring the while. Diver this pour a pint and a half of boiling water; cover the jug with a saucer and let it stand for about five minutes, then pour it out and add milk and sugar.

Chicory can always be distinguished, both in the dry mixture and the infusion, by smell or taste; but there is a still better mode of detecting chicory in a mixture that has been sold as coffee. Some years ago, being compelled by business to remain at the office all night, we sent to a grocer in the neighbourhood for a small quantity of pure coffee. On opening the packet we found it contained a mixture with at least one-half chicory, and on the impulse of the moment wrote a sharp note of complaint. The next day the grocer made his appearance. He had received the note-how did we know there was chicory in the coffee? We replied, "By smell and taste." He had brought several samples with him. "Would we be so kind as to point out which of them contained coffee only, and which were mixed with chicory?" Our friend was particularly sarcastic. We declined the task. He then assumed the air of an injured man. We had attacked his character as a tradesman. "He had been to the coffee-roasters, and he had their word for it that the article supplied was pure coffee." Having made this statement he waited apparently for an apology. By this time we had become annoyed at his air of injured innocence, and called for a saucer of cold water, into which a little of the mixture was thrown. In a couple of minutes the chicory had sunk to the bottom, giving a brown tinge to the water; the coffee floated at the top. For the satisfaction of the grocer, who had now become quite humble, his samples were tested one by one, with the same result. The pure coffee floated, giving out the slightest perceptible colour. the chicory behaving more like burnt bread-crumbs.

## 85.-To Make Coffee and Chicory.)

TIE sufficient coffee (and chicory) loosely in a piece of muslin; put it into the coffee-pot and pour in boiling water; set it on the fire, and as soon as it boils lift it off. The quantity of the mixture used depends entirely on the proportion of chicory and the strength of the infusion which is agreeable.

#### 86.—Tea.

It must be remembered that neither tea nor coffee is "food," in the sense we have already explained. They are both gentle stimulants, promoting digestion, increasing the healthy action of the skin, and checking the waste of the system; but they do not contain anything which can be built up into the body, nor do they supply heat and force of themselves. Medical men who have given much time and attention to the subject recommend persons not to take tea upon an empty stomach, nor at dinner-time. Taken at night it usually has the effect of keeping a person awake.

The following remarks are taken from Dr. Edward Smith's *Practica'*. Dietary:—"In selecting tea on economical grounds, a moderately-priced kin! is better than one at either extreme. It should be composed of leaves exclusively—that is, it should be free from stalks. The larger are the older leaves, and have a stronger and rougher flavour than the smaller and younger ones; but they do not differ materially in the chemical elements of which they are composed.

#### 87.—Green Tea.

"Green tea is produced from the same tree that yields the black tea, but it is prepared chiefly from the young shoots, and is rolled very closely together in its manufacture; whilst the black tea is more commonly made of the larger leaves, and undergoes a degree of fermentation, which gives it its black colour. Of the two, green tea has usually the more delicate flavour, and as it is rolled closely, a given weight of it scarcely occupies half of the space taken by black tea. Hence if, as is usually the case, the quantity of tea is measured and not weighed, an infusion of green tea will be twice or thrice as strong as an infusion of the same volume of black tea. To this should be attributed. at least in chief part, the greater effect which green tea exerts over the The commonest kind of black tea, consisting of large leaves and stalks, is called inferior congou; whilst smaller leaves, with a finer flavour and less admixture of stalks, are found in the finer qualities of congou and in southong. Oolong is rolled very loosely and is generally a fine tea, but from its peculiar flavour and almost colourless infusion it has the qualities of a green tea, and is used to mix with other black teas. The fine green colour which some teas have, and which was formerly more common than it is now, is produced by 'facing' the leaf with Prussian blue, gypsum, and indigo."

#### 88.-Indian Tea.

A VERY large quantity of tea, increasing every year, is now grown in India, and is estoemed very highly for mixing with that received from China. The Indian tea is not considered agreeable when taken by itself.

As regards present prices, tea of really good quality may be purchased at about 2s. 8d. per pound; this is either all black or mixed. Inferior teas are selling from 1s. 6d. upwards. Choice sorts are more expensive, and sometimes fetch extravagant prices. Tea-dust, when really what it professes to be—simply the broken tea taken from the bottom of the chest or made in packing—is, of course, as good as the unbroken leaf, but it is very frequently the sweepings of warehouses, mixed with dirt, and therefore not always a desirable article to use. Many of the "cheap" teas are also adulterated, sometimes by the Chinese and sometimes in this country. Tea-leaves which have been already used are in some cases manipulated and sold for the genuine article, and occasionally the leaves of other plants are added to those of the tea-plant, or the tea may be deteriorated by an undue admixture of stalks. This latter trick is easily detected, the others are not so easily seen; the safest plan is to deal with a respectable tradesman who understands his business.

#### 89.—To Make Tea.

MAKE the teapot quite warm, put in sufficient tea to make the infusion of the required strength, pour boiling water over—soft water if possible; clean rain-water is best. If the water is "hard," add a small quantity of carbonate of soda, as much as will lie on a threepenny-piece, stir the leaves, and let the pot stand on the hob for five minutes.

If the water is soft no carbonate of soda should be used, and it is important to have a teapot large enough to hold as much water as is required. Do not fall into the common mistake of using a small teapot, and emptying it in pouring out the first cups of tea. If you do, don't expect to get tea of equal strength by putting fresh water upon the exhausted leaves. Do not let the teapot stand so near the fire as to boil, and do not make the tea long before it is wanted.

Keep tea in a well-stoppered bottle or a close-shutting tea-caddy.

#### 90.—Cocoa.

Cocoa is not only an agreeable beverage; it possesses qualities which make it in some respects preferable to tea and coffee. It is made from the seed of the chocolate plant, which grows in South America and elsewhere. When the fruit is ripe the seeds are taken out, cleaned, and dried. The best cocoa is made from the seeds after the outer husk has been removed and the seeds themselves roasted; in the inferior kinds the shell is ground up with the seeds. The roasted and crushed seeds are called cocoa nibs; they are ground down to make cocoa paste, and chocolate is cocoa paste flavoured with vanilla and other spices. Soluble, rock, and flake cocoas are made from the ground seeds, and nixed with sugar, gums, starch, &c. Pure cocoa contains about 5 parts of water, of flesh-producers about 22 parts, of force-producers about 69 parts, and about 4 parts mineral matter. It differs, therefore, from tea or coffee in being really nourishing in itself.

The "cocoa nibs" would be the best form in which to purchase it if it were not for the time which their preparation requires. Where this is not objectionable they are certainly to be preferred.

#### 91.—To Prepare Cocoa from the Nibs.

Boil them with sufficient water for two or three hours, the longer the better. Two ounces should make three pints.

#### 92.—Soluble Cocoas

ARE made by mixing the cocoa to a paste and pouring boiling water upon it.

#### 93.—Flake Cocoa

REQUIRES about a tablespoonful to a pint of water, and should be boiled for twenty minutes. Stirring occasionally, pour it out of the pot, and let it stand till cold, when the fat can be taken off and as much of the cocoa warmed up as may be wanted.

# MEAT COOKERY.

## 94.—Boiling.

Boiling is a very simple and easy process, but, like every other detail in cooking, requires care. It is also the most economical method of preparing meat.

For fresh joints do not put the meat into the saucepan until the water boils briskly, then put on the lid and let the boiling recommence, and continue for a few minutes, after which shift the pot to where it can only simmer very gently. The saucepan must be carefully watched, and the simmering kept up until the meat is cooked.

In this way the juices of the joint will be kept in, and it will be full of gravy. If it is put on in cold water it loses a great deal of its richness, though, of course, the water in which it is boiled will gain what the meat loses, but besides this the fibres of the meat become hard and indigestible when it is put into cold water, and it is in both respects so much the less fitted for nourishment.

Some cooks recommend soaking meat in cold water before cooking, but this should never be done with fresh joints. It makes the meat whiter because the gravy is drawn out of it and wasted. Salted and dried meats do require soaking.

Most cooks recommend the skimming of the pot from time to time while it is simmering, and it is quite as well that this should be done at the beginning of the process; but after that, the less skimming the better. There will be very little scum to remove if the instructions given above are strictly followed.

The time required for boiling a joint is about a quarter of an hour for every pound. Let the meat be properly done. Many persons like it underdone and consider it more nutritious, but that is a mistake. There is no necessity for over-cooking, but all animal food should be well done.

Remember also that meat is cooked better in "soft" than in "hard" water.

#### 95.—Stewing.

In stewing we put the meat into a smaller quantity of water, that it may cook as far as possible in its own juices, and never allow it, from first to last, to rise above a very gentle simmer.

## 96.—Roasting.

In roasting a joint it should be suspended before an open fire, and kept turning. The fire must be well "made up" before the meat is put down, that it may be strongest at the beginning, for precisely the same reason that in boiling a joint is put into boiling water. In both cases the outside is slightly hardened by the effect of the heat upon the albumen, and the greater part of the juices is kept in. Some of the gravy, however, will escape with

the fat of the roasting joint, and while the cooking goes on the joint should be kept well "basted." Frequent "basting" is indispensable. Roasting meat should be "dredged" with flour (that is, have a little flour sprinkled over it from a "flour-dredger," which is made like a large pepper-box) when the gravy begins to appear. The flour absorbs some of the gravy, and prevents any more from coming out.

The most convenient "jack" for roasting is the "bottle-jack," which contains a spring, and is wound up with a key like a clock; but there are other simple contrivances which, if not so convenient, are less expensive, and can be made to answer the purpose. In the absence of a "jack," perhaps the best method is to suspend the joint by a sufficiently strong worsted thread, with a hook at the end, and fastened above to a piece of notched wood or iron fixed to the mantelpiece, so as to enable the person cooking to keep the joint fourteen or sixteen inches from the fire when required. Put the meat nearer to the fire at first, and remove it back after the first fifteen minutes.

As a general rule, the time required in roasting is one quarter of an hour for every pound.

## 97.—Baking.

Baking is much less troublesome than roasting, and the convenience of sending a joint to the bakehouse is very great. The effect on the meat is much the same as roasting. Whether the joint be sent to the bakehouse or not, an oven is a great acquisition in a house, and where there is one it may be made useful for many purposes. The principal difficulty in using an oven is to keep it at a proper and uniform heat during its use without waste of fuel, and this can only be done by practice and observation. The terms used are necessarily indefinite; a "brisk" oven, a "slow" oven, and so on, leave a good deal to the judgment of the person cooking, but we cannot well employ more definite phrases, and must do the best we can with them in the various recipes as they occur.

## 98.—Broiling.

THERE is more skill in broiling than is generally supposed. Use a clear, bright fire, not too fierce, or the article broiled will be overdone on the outside before it is cooked through; if the fire is dull the gravy will escape, and the broil be spoiled. Never stick a fork into anything broiling.

## 99.-Frying.

FRYING is a very convenient method of cooking, as the fire need not be so carefully prepared as it must be for broiling, and it is, besides, suitable for many dishes which cannot be prepared in any other way. The frying-pan should be kept thoroughly clean, and if of iron scrubbed frequently with fine sand and water. Most articles are fried in dripping or oil, most economically in dripping, which should be made very hot, when the article to be fried may be put in. If the fire is too hot, moderate it by throwing a few ashes on.

## MUTTON.

## 100.—Boiled Leg of Mutton.

Put the joint into boiling water sufficient to cover, having previously cut off the shank-bone, and let the water boil up. Then draw the saucepan to the side of the fire, where it can only gently simmer. Throw in a little salt, and from time to time, when the scum rises to the surface, skim it off.

If turnips are boiled with the joint they will take about three-quarters of an hour. When carrots are required, they should be prepared and put into the pot as soon as the first scum has been taken off.

Time-rather over than under a quarter of an hour for each pound weight.

## 101.—Roast Leg of Mutton.

Wipe the joint with a dry cloth; cut off the shank-bone; suspend the meat before a bright, clear fire, about eight inches from the bars, and keep it turning. In a quarter of an hour increase the distance from the fire to nine or ten inches. As soon as there is sufficient fat and gravy in the pan, dredge a little flour over the joint and commence "basting." A quarter of an hour before serving draw it nearer the fire to brown. Sprinkle over it a little salt; dish the meat; pour off the dripping; add some boiling water slightly salted, and pour it over the meat.

Time—about a quarter of an hour for each pound.

#### 102.—Roast Loin of Mutton.

Cut and trim off the superfluous fat, and see that the butcher "joints" the meat properly, as much annoyance is saved thereby in carving. Put down the meat to a nice clear fire, and follow the directions in the preceding recipe.

Time—a loin of mutton weighing six pounds requires fully an hour and a half.

#### 103.—Roast Shoulder of Mutton,

THE directions given above for roast leg of mutton will serve equally for the shoulder.

Some persons like a shoulder of mutton boiled and served with onions, which should be peeled and stewed in a separate saucepan for an hour and a half.

#### 104.—Roast Neck of Mutton.

FOR roasting choose the middle or best end of the neck of mutton, and if there is too much fat trim it off and put by for suet puddings. Let the bones be cut short, and see that it is properly jointed before it is put down to the fire. Place the joint at a nice brisk fire, dredge it with flour, and keep tasting until it is done. Follow the directions given above for roast leg as to browning and gravy.

Time-for four pounds over one hour.

#### 105.—Boiled Neck of Mutton.

TRIM off a portion of the fat, if there should be more than is wanted. Put the meat into boiling water, with the bones uppermost. Throw in a little salt, and remove the scum as directed with other joints. When the pot boils draw it on one side and allow it to simmer gently.

Add turnips and carrots when in season.

Time-allow full twenty minutes for every pound of meat.

## 106.-Breast of Mutton.

A VERY good method of cooking breast of mutton is to take off some of the fat and cut out the bones. Sprinkle over it a few bread-crumbs, mixed with two tablespoonfuls of minced savoury herbs and pepper and salt. Roll it up and tie round with string. Put into boiling water and simmer for full two hours.

This dish is particularly good cold.

## 107.- "Scrag" of Mutton.

THE "scrag" of mutton is best in an "Irish stew." Put the meat into a large saucepan of boiling water, sufficient to well cover, with sliced onions and carrots; pepper and salt to taste. Simmer gently for full an hour and a-half for three pounds of meat; then peel and slice a sufficient quantity of potatoes and add. Put the lid on closely, and simmer, say for half-an-hour longer, or until the potatoes are done.

Of the joints mentioned above the shoulder and neck are the best to send to the bakehouse, when they may be accompanied with potatoes or pudding. If potatoes are preferred they should be peeled, and the larger ones cut in two, and laid at the bottom of the baking-dish. Add a little salt and put a meat-stand in the centre, on which the joint may rest.

A "batter" or Yorkshire pudding is made as follows. We give two recipes, to be used according to circumstances:—

## 108.—Yorkshire Pudding with Baked Meat.

Six tablespoonfuls of flour, with two ounces of well-chopped beef suct and as much soda as will lie on a sixpence; add half a teaspoonful of salt. Well mix. Then pour in by degrees a pint of milk, and work the whole into a smooth batter. Grease the dish, and pour in the batter. Put a meat-stand in the centre, on which to place the joint.

Or, instead of the suet and soda beat up one or two eggs with the milk, and proceed as before.

The liquor in which fresh meat has been boiled contains some of its most nutritious qualities. It will generally be most convenient to save it till the next day, when it may be thickened with half a pound of Scotch barley, which should be washed in cold water and boiled in the liquor for an hour. Break up a little toasted or plain bread into each basin, and pour the thickened broth over it.

Some persons prefer two ounces of rice to each quart of liquor instead of Scotch barley; or macaroni, a quarter of a pound to each quart.

The shanks of the leg and shoulder of mutton should be stewed for three hours in a small saucepan with sufficient water, and they then make a palatable hot supper; or they may be stewed, and put by to hash with the remains of the cold meat.

## 109.-Mutton Chops.

THE most expensive and least satisfactory method of purchasing mutton for a household is in the shape of loin chops, as they are much in demand for luncheon-houses in most great cities, and therefore fetch a high price. We will, however, give the best methods of cooking them.

The chops should be cut from mutton well hung and three-quarters of an inch thick; about half-an-inch of fat should be left on them. Broil about five inches above a bright, clear fire for ten minutes, during which they should be turned four times. Sprinkle with salt and serve hot on a hot plate. Do not stick a fork into the chop while cooking, as that lets out the gravy. Turn it the first time as soon as the gravy begins to drop.

If the flavour of garlic is liked, put a clove of this plant on the end of a fork and rub the chop lightly with it on both sides when done.

#### 110.—Another Method.

LET the chop be cut from three-quarters of an inch to an inch in thickness, put an ounce of plain dripping (that is, dripping from unseasoned meat) or lard into a perfectly clean frying-pan, and place it over the fire. When the fat begins to smoke take the chop with a fork by the thin end and put it into the pan. In about half-a-minute turn and fry about three minutes. Then sprinkle with salt, and turn again and sprinkle the same quantity of salt on the second side. In about ten minutes the chop will be cooked. It should be turned several times while it is cooking. When done rub a little garlie lightly over both sides as in previous recipe, if the flavour is liked.

#### 111.—Mutton Cutlets (Neck chops).

A VERY good and economical dish may be prepared from the middle and best end of a neck of mutton as under:—

Take off the neck as many cutlets as required, with a sharp knife remove the bone at the thick end of each cutlet; this will be easily done, as the butcher will have broken the bones across when the meat was purchased. Beat up the yolk and white of an egg, with a pinch of salt; rub the cutlet over with the egg, then place some bread-crumbs on a plate, and lay the cutlet on them so as to take up the crumbs; serve each side the same, and shake off the loose crumbs. Put an ounce of plain dripping into a clean frying-pan, and when the fat is thoroughly hot lay the cutlets in; turn them when done on one side and serve them hot on hot plates.

## 112.-Mutton Steaks.

MUTTON steaks, cut about three-quarters of an inch thick, may be cooked in the same manner, with or without the bread-crumbs and egg.

## 113.-Sheep's Head, Brains, &c.

WE will now take the sheep's head, brains, and internal parts. All these, when thoroughly cleaned and well prepared, are good and wholesome, some of them acknowledged dainties. Unfortunately, amongst those to whom they would be most serviceable there is very often a foolish prejudice against the internal parts of animals which we should be glad to be able to remove. The best argument in their favour would be a properly-cooked dish.

## 114.-Sheep's Heart.

Cut into four, trim off the leathery parts called the "deaf ears," and wash with lukewarm water. Sprinkle with pepper and salt and put into a Yorkshire pudding (for which see paragraph 108), and send to the bakehouse.

One or two hearts, according to the size of the family, may be sent to the bakehouse whole, over a Yorkshire pudding—trimming off the "deaf ears" first and thoroughly washing the heart in lukewarm water.

## 115.—Sheep's Heart and Bacon Rashers.

Cut the heart into six pieces, trim and wash as before. Fry the rashers in their own fat; when they are taken out of the pan put the pieces of heart to cook in the same fat.

## 116.—Sheep's Liver and Bacon.

WIPE the liver with a wet cloth, trim off any lumps or swollen veins that may be observed. Cut the liver up into slices half-an-inch thick. Fry a sufficient number of rashers of bacon in their own fat, afterwards fry the slices of liver in the same. When both have been cooked, pour off the fat and dredge a little flour into the pan. Add a little water, and boil to make gravy.

## 117.-Sheep's Head.

THE sheep's head should be split in half, and the tongue, brains, and eyes removed. Clean thoroughly, and trim off any pieces of skin that may have been left. Soak in warm water and salt for a couple of hours, to get rid of the blood; then put it into the saucepan with sufficient COLD water to cover it, and when it boils add carrots and turnips, with three onions—all peeled and sliced—and a little parsley. Mix a quarter of a pound of Scotch oatmeal

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to a smooth batter with a little cold water, and pour it into the saucepan. Keep stirring until it boils up again, then shut the saucepan closely and boil for an hour and a-half or two hours. It may be thickened with rice or barley, but oatmeal is preferable.

Time-one hour and a-half or two hours.

## 118.—Sheep's Brains.

TIE up in a small cloth, put into boiling water, and simmer for ten minutes. Eat with butter, pepper, and salt.

## 119.-Sheep's Tongues

ARE best salted and boiled to be eaten cold. Boil for about an hour. The outer skin must then be peeled off; when the tongue is properly cooked this will be easily removed.

## 120.-Tripe.

TRIPE is generally obtained from the tripe-dresser's cleaned and partially cooked. Boil as many onions as may be required for about half-an-hour, and then put the tripe in with them and boil for—say, an hour and a-half for two or more pounds.

## 121.-Kidneys, Broiled.

Cur open the kidneys lengthwise, evenly, but do not separate the parts; skin them, pass a skewer under the white part to keep them flat, and broil, with the inside surface downwards, over a clear fire; turn when done enough on one side and cook the other. Remove the skewers, place the kidneys on a hot dish, season with pepper and salt, and put a very small piece of butter in the middle of each. Serve very hot, and quickly.

They may also be fried in a little fat.

# LAMB.

LAMB is generally expensive, and scarcely to be recommended on the score of economy for those whose incomes are limited, as an artizan's usually is. On occasions it may be purchased cheaply, and therefore we add a few remarks as to its preparation.

## 122.—Leg of Lamb

May be either boiled or roasted in the same manner as leg of mutton. If boiled it may be accompanied by cauliflower or spinach, and is usually served with melted butter. When roasted it should be served with mint sauce, and accompanied by peas, spinach, or cauliflower.

The same directions will serve for roast shoulder of lamb.

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## 123.-Leg, Breast, or Neck

MAY be stewed with carrots, turnips, and onions cut in thick slices. Simmer very gently for one hour; then put in a pint of green pease, with a little mint, pepper, and salt, and gently simmer for half-an-hour longer. Do not use more water than is necessary to cover.

## 124.-Lamb's Fry.

Wash in cold water, and then simmer in sufficient water to cover—ten minutes to every pound. Take out and drain, and lay on a dry cloth; then dip them into a batter made as under, and gently fry in two ounces of dripping with a chopped onion. When the fry is of a nice gold colour, turn, and when done serve hot, seasoning with pepper and salt.

To make the batter—Beat up an egg, add a teaspoonful of flour, and mix it smoothly. This quantity of batter will be required for one pound.

Pig's chitterlings may be similarly cooked. They are purchased ready cooked, and should be simmered for half-an-hour longer—that is, until they are tender.

# BEEF.

#### 125.—To Roast a Joint of Beef.

Follow the instructions given for roasting mutton.

#### 126.—Salted Beef.

In large towns it is generally more convenient to purchase beef or pork from the butcher's ready salted. A good pickle may be made by mixing two and a-half pounds of salt, one and a-half ounces of saltpetre, and a quarter of a pound of brown sugar. This will be sufficient for a joint of five or six pounds weight. The mixture should be well rubbed in three or four times, and the meat left in pickle in a tub or pan for a week. The sugar and saltpetre are not necessary, but are preferred by some persons.

#### 127.—Boiled Beef.

To cook salt beef. Wash away the superfluous salt, and put the meat on in COLD water. When the pot boils, draw it on one side and keep it simmering until the meat is done. Take off the scum at intervals, allowing about twenty minutes for every pound weight.

Carrots scraped and sliced may be put in as soon as the first scum has been removed from the water. Turnips peeled and sliced require about three quarters of an hour.

The liquor in which the meat has been boiled, if not too salt, may be put aside for pea-soup.

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#### 128.—Beef Stew.

TAKE two or three pounds of lean beef and divide it into pieces about three or four inches square, put them into a saucepan with sufficient hot water to cover, and let it gently simmer, but not boil, for an hour and a-half. Pepper, salt, and vegetables to taste.

#### 129.-Ox-Cheek Stewed.

If the check is bought cut from the bone, as is generally the case in London, it should be put into the pot in sufficient cold water with two or three teaspoonfuls of salt, and boiled. As soon as boiling commences put the pot on one side, so that it may be kept simmering. Vegetables, pepper and salt, &c., to taste. The meat will be done in about four hours.

Ox-cheek is very good salted (see directions for salting beef). Boil about four hours.

When the half-head is purchased the cheek can be cut from the bone and cooked as above; the bones themselves having been well cleaned should be thoroughly stewed for soup.

## 130.—Beefsteak Broiled or Fried.

BEEFSTEAR should be cut about three-quarters of an inch in thickness, and broiled over a clear fire. As soon as the gravy begins to drop turn the steak, and partly do the other side; then re-turn. Do not stick a fork into the steak.

If more convenient a steak may be fried in the same manner as a chop (see page 45).

## 131.—Stewed Steak.

Brown the steak on both sides in the frying-pan with hot fat; then put it into a saucepan with half-a-pint of water, with sliced onion, pepper, salt, and ketchup. Stew slowly; do not on any account let it boil; keep the saucepan closed. Thicken the gravy with a little flour.

#### 182.—Steak and Onions.

Fay a steak in fat (as directed for mutton chops, paragraph 109). Have the onions ready out into rings, and fry in the hot fat when the steak has been taken out.

#### 183.—Bullock's Heart

Is a very wholesome and profitable dish. Its great fault is that it readily chills, so that the plates should be thoroughly hot and the dish served without delay. It is prepared as follows:—

Cut off the "deaf ears," well wash the heart, putting the fingers into the cavities to remove the blood-clots. Stuff the inside with onion and sage, chopped fine and mixed with bread-crumbs, or with veal stuffing (bread-crumbs, parsley, and sweet herbs). Fasten some white paper, well greased, over the top of the heart, to keep the stuffing in, and send it to the bakehouse

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over batter pudding or potatoes, and do not forget to serve it hot. The "deaf ears" may be put on to simmer, with a small onion, to provide gravy.

## 134.—Ox-Kidney Fried.

CLEAN the kidney, cut it into slices an inch thick, and fry in plain dripping. A very nice accompaniment is made by previously boiling two large onions and chopping them up, adding bread-crumbs, pepper, and salt. Fry the onion and bread-crumbs in the same pan after the kidney is cooked. Put them over the kidney and serve hot.

#### 135.-The Same Stewed.

Put the slices into the pan, seasoning with pepper and salt, and half cook; then pour a little warm water into the pan, dredge in some flour, and stew the slices of kidney, simmering very gently.

# VEAL.

Veal is usually either roast (or baked) or stewed, with the exception of the knuckle.

#### 136.-Knuckle of Veal and Pork or Bacon.

Put the veal, with small knuckle of ham or piece of bacon, or two pounds of belly of pork, into boiling water with two carrots cut into small pieces, two turnips, and a couple of onions. Boil gently for three hours. The liquer may be saved for next day, and boiled up with half-a-pound or more of whole or ground rice or pease.

#### 137.—Fillet of Veal.

Cut out the bone, and make an incision between the fillet and the saddle, and fill it with veal stuffing. Push the veal into a round form, fastening it with skewers and tie with a string, and send to the bakehouse over potatoes, or roast before the fire and well baste during the cooking. This joint is best with pickled pork or boiled bacon. Time (if roasted)—twenty minutes to the pound.

#### 138.—Loin or Breast of Veal.

ROAST in the usual manner. Time-twenty minutes to the pound.

#### 139.—Veal Stuffing.

A SIMPLE mode of making veal stuffing is by mixing six ounces of state bread-crumbs, two ounces of suet, a little chopped parsley (very fine), a small quantity of nutmeg, two teaspoonfuls of savoury herbs, pepper, salt, and one egg beaten up.

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#### 140.—Stewed Veal.

THE shoulder, neck, breast, and knuckles are the joints best adapted for stewing; and portions of them cut into small pieces, put into boiling water with turnips and onions, make palatable and nourishing dishes. Veal requires longer cooking than mutton. Take care, as with all stews, not to let the saucepan boil.

#### 141.-Calf's Head.

CALF'S head is sometimes to be bought cheap. The best method of cooking it will be to chop it open, take out the brains, clean thoroughly, and simmer gently for three hours with pepper, salt, onions, and parsley. Serve with parsley and butter alone, or with the brains chopped up, which should be boiled by themselves in a cloth for twenty minutes.

### 142.—Calf's Foot.

CALF's foot should be boiled for two hours with parsley, onion, and turnip.

143.-Calf's Liver.

SAME as sheep's liver.

# PORK.

# 144.-Roast (or Baked) Pork,

WHETHER loin or leg, should be "scored" across the skin with a sharp knife, and cooked with chopped onion and sage. If sent to the bakehouse, let it be over potatoes.

## 145.—Pig's Head

Should be split open, the brains removed, the ears cut off, the head thoroughly cleaned, and sent to the bakehouse with potatoes. Onion and sage to taste.

Roast pork requires for the cooking about twenty minutes for each pound.

## 146.-Boiled Pork.

Salt pork should be put into cold water and boiled with vegetables—carrots, turnips, onions. Time—about twenty minutes to the pound.

Pease pudding is generally served with boiled pork.

## 147.-Pork Chops

Ann cooked like mutton chops, but require more doing.

## BACON.

#### 148.-To Boil Bacon.

If very salt soak it in cold water—if four or five pounds in weight leave it in soak all night, if smaller a less time. Boil and then simmer gently in sufficient water. Time—say an hour and a-half for three or four pounds. If gammon of bacon, strip the skin off when boiled and powder breadraspings over.

Cabbage may be boiled with the meat.

## 149.—Pease Pudding.

The half-a-pint of split pease loosely in a clean cloth, well cover with water, and boil for two hours. Then turn them out into a basin and beat them up with a little butter or dripping, adding pepper and salt. The the pudding up again in the cloth tightly, and boil for ten minutes longer.

#### 150.—Hashed Mutton.

HASHED mutton is very often as hard and indigestible as leather, but when properly prepared is tender and wholesome. The most important thing to be remembered is that if the meat is boiled the hash is spoiled.

Cut the remains of the meat from the cold shoulder or leg of mutton, in nice even slices, sprinkle them with pepper and salt, and put them on one side. Chop the bones and fragments of the joint, and put them into a saucepan with half-a-dozen allspice and a sliced onion. Cover with water, and gently simmer for one hour; dredge in a little flour to thicken. Then put in the meat, but take care not to let the saucepan boil. A little ketchup to flavour is generally considered agreeable.

### Another Method.

ONE pound of cooked meat cut into thin slices, dredge with flour and sprinkle with salt and pepper. Put them into a frying-pan, add half a pint of cold water, and set the pan on the fire. Simmer very gently for ten minutes. Use a little ketchup to flavour.

## 151.-Minced Meat (Beef, Mutton, Lamb, Veal, or Poultry).

Cut the cold meat into small dice, and mix with them a chopped onion. Sprinkle a little pepper and salt, and dredge plentifully with flour. Put into the frying-pan half-a-pint of water, and let it boil. Take it off the fire, stir in the meat, and simmer gently for a quarter of an hour or twenty minutes, and serve over toasted bread or boiled potatoes.

## 152.—Bubble and Squeak.

TAKE a few thin slices of cold salt pork (or boiled salt beef), fry them very gently in a little hot fat. When the meat is warmed through remove it to a hot dish, and fry in the fat cooked cabbage or other greens, well chopped up, with an onion sliced thin. Season with pepper and salt. Turnips and carrots (also previously cooked) may be chopped up and fried with the greens.

# MEAT PIES AND PUDDINGS.

MEAT pies and puddings may be made of almost any kind of unsalted meat, and is an economical method of dealing with the remains of cold joints.

#### 153.-To Make a Crust for Meat Pies.

INGREDIENTS—One pound of flour, quarter of a pound of dripping, two ounces of lard, or six ounces of dripping, small teaspoonful of baking powder, and a pinch of salt.

The flour must be perfectly dry, or the paste will be heavy and indigestible. Put it into the pan, and pass the fingers through to make sure that there are no lumps in it. Now sprinkle the baking powder and salt in, and mix well with the flour. Next cut the fat into small pieces and thoroughly rub it in the flour with the hand, then mix into dough with sufficient water, added gradually. Throw a little flour on a clean board, and roll the dough out to the necessary thickness.

This will make a "short" paste; but if a more flaky crust is preferred mix only two ounces of the fat with the flour in the pan, and when it has been rolled out on the board add two ounces more in small lumps over the surface of the dough, which should then be folded up and rolled out again; after which the remaining two ounces can be added in the same way, each time sprinkling a little flour over. The paste is then once more rolled out to the required thickness.

#### 154.—Meat Pie.

THE meat should be cut into conveniently-sized pieces, and laid with a sliced onion in the baking-dish. Sprinkle with flour, and add pepper and salt and a little grated nutmeg. Cover with a layer of potato thinly sliced. Before laying in the meat line the sides and edge of the dish with thin dough. Put in a teacupful of water to make gravy, and put on the top crust. Make a small hole at each end to let out the steam. The edges may be ornamented by pressing them with a fork, or with the bowl of a spoon.

Time for baking-one hour and a-half.

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A slice or two of ox or sheep kidney make a mutton or beef pie or pudding much richer; for veal pie a few slices of pickled pork or a little bacon is considered a great improvement.

## 155.—For Pudding Crust.

INGREDIENTS—One pound of flour, half-pound of suet—beef or mutton—chopped fine, and half a teaspoonful of salt.

Put the flour, which should be perfectly dry, into the pan. Thoroughly mix in the suet and salt. Add water gradually, and work up into a stiff paste. Take the paste out of the pan and roll it on a board sprinkled with a little flour to the thickness required.

A plainer crust with six ounces of suct and half-a-teaspoonful of baking powder will be equally light.

## 156.-Meat Pudding.

GREASE the inside of the basin and line it with dough. Fill up with the meat prepared in the same way as for pie. Put in a little water and cover over with the crust, well securing the edges. Wet a pudding-cloth and tie over. The potatoes can be left out and boiled separately in the usual way.

Time for boiling—an hour and a-half to two hours.

# SOUP.

In boiling a joint of fresh meat for the table we want to keep as much as possible of the nutriment in it, and therefore, as we have already said, it should be put into boiling water, boiled for a few minutes to slightly harden the outside, and then simmered gently until it is done. In making soups our object is to get the nutriment out of the meat, and we therefore adopt a different plan, and put the meat, previously cut up, into cold water, and allow it to warm slowly until it simmers very gently, not allowing it to boil at all. These instructions differ materially from those given in many cookery books, and from the practice of some persons who have had a good deal of cooking to do, but they must be carefully attended to if good soup is wanted.

Of ordinary meats beef makes the best soups—or beef and veal in equal proportions—and almost any of the "inferior" parts may be used—the thin flank, hock, neck, clod and sticking-piece, shin, cheek, and trimmings generally.

Veal is much in favour for making soups, and almost any part of the animal will serve the purpose—knuckle, breast, and neck especially; but it requires the addition of lean bacon cut into small pieces—say, one ounce to every pound of meat.

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Mutton makes capital stews and good broth, and may be used with beef and veal for soups, but is seldom employed by itself for that purpose.

Soups may be greatly enriched by the addition of a few bones, which should be broken up and well boiled. They contain a great deal of nourishment that it is a pity should be lost, but it cannot be extracted without well boiling them, nor if the bones are stewed whole.

## 157.—Stock.

PROFESSED cooks call the unflavoured soup, or soup flavoured only with a few simple vegetables, "stock," and it is by additions to this "stock" that the several varieties are produced.

## 158.—A Wholesome and Economical Soup.

Take two pounds of beef (that is, of any of the parts mentioned above), cut into from four to six pieces, and one neat's foot split in two. Put into three quarts of cold water, heat slowly, and simmer for three hours. Add one large carrot, scraped and cut into pieces, three onions, peeled and sliced, one teaspoonful of salt, one teaspoonful of pepper, and simmer for one hour longer. Thicken with two tablespoonfuls of flour.

The possible variations of this simple recipe are all but numberless. The thickening may be made of whole rice, ground rice, pearl barley, or oatmeal. The vegetables may be varied according to season and fancy. The flavouring can be enhanced with a few sweet herbs or a little allspice and mace. A couple of ounces of lean bacon chopped up, or a ham-bone cooked with the meat, will, to the taste of most persons, improve the flavour. A few dumplings, not larger than pullet's eggs, made with the fat skimmed from the soup and simmered in the pot for twenty minutes, are an agreeable addition, and an economical one for a family.

## 159.—Similar Soup with Veal.

Pur four or five pounds of knuckle of veal, with as many ounces of lean bacon cut very small, into three quarts of cold water. Add two blades of mace, a sliced onion, one head of celery, and a bunch of parsley, with pepper and salt, and gently simmer for about three hours. Break up and wash a quarter of a pound of macaroni, and simmer with the meat for twenty minutes; or add a quarter of a pound of rice, which will take a longer time to cook; or thicken with ground rice, one small tablespoonful to a quart. Small dumplings may be added, as in previous recipe.

# 160.-To make Pea Soup.

Boil three or four sliced turnips, one large carrot cut into slices, and three onions, in a pint and a-half of water. Warm up the liquor in which a joint of meat has been boiled. Mix to a paste, and add a tablespoonful of peafour to every quart of the liquor and boil; then add the vegetables, with

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the water in which they were cooked. Pepper, &c., to taste, with a table-spoonful of dried mint rubbed to powder.

Pea-flour is sold in packets by most corn-chandlers; its use saves a great deal of time and trouble, but if "split peas" are preferred they should be put into cold water and boiled until done, which will be in about two hours, using only as much water as will cover them. One pint of split pease to every two quarts of soup will be required. Before they are added they should be strained through a colander and mashed with a spoon.

The liquor in which joints have been boiled may be made richer if required by adding the trimmings of fresh meat or poultry, shank-bones, or any pieces the cupboard may furnish. Boil them in the liquor for a sufficient time, and season and flavour as above.

The water in which salt meats have been cooked is a standing difficulty in a household. To throw it away is waste, to use it for pea or other soup is often worse. A moderate quantity is all the body requires of salt, and when it is taken in excess it creates inordinate and inconvenient thirst. If, therefore, salted meats are indulged in and the liquor is very salt, it is really less wasteful to throw it away than to use it.

"The value of good soup," says an able writer, "is not at all sufficiently appreciated in these countries, nor is the meat, in consequence, utilised to the extent it should be in either affording or supplementing food. The French are in this matter far in advance of us. They have recognised the fact that good and nutritious soups can be made of many parts of the cow, now never thought of as a purchasable commodity in the generality of middle-class houses in this country." There is no doubt this is the simple truth, and the more frequent use of soups would be a great advantage in our English homes of the middle and artizan classes.

## FISH.

In consequence of the extension of railways fish are now to be obtained in almost all the markets of the kingdom, but the supply is always irregular and uncertain, and the prices vary accordingly from day to day. As food, fish is most valuable to those who are engaged in head-work and light labour, as it contains less flesh-forming matter, weight for weight, than ordinary butcher's meat, but more than vegetables possess, and contains besides a large proportion of the material required for the brain and nerves. It would not be desirable to live exclusively on fish, but where it can be obtained it should be eaten occasionally.

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#### 161.-To Boil Fish.

TAKE care that the fish are gutted, wipe them with a damp cloth, and put them into the saucepan with sufficient cold water to cover them. To every quart of water put two teaspoonfuls of salt, and as soon as boiling commences remove the saucepan to a little distance from the fire, where the water will gently simmer, until the fish is done. The time required will vary a good deal according to the size and kind. When properly done the flesh will be soft and easily separated from the bone, but if it drops off it is overdone.

When fish is not to be cooked whole put the pieces into boiling water, and as large fish cannot be boiled properly without a drainer at the bottom of the saucepan, and even then will require great care to keep them from breaking, it is not a bad plan to cut them into pieces before boiling.

When fish are cut up, rub salt into the pieces instead of putting it into the water.

Mackerel will take, after the water boils, from fifteen to twenty minutes; fresh cod, half-an-hour, more or less; gurnet, half-an-hour; herrings, from twelve to fifteen minutes; grey mullet, fifteen minutes to three-quarters of an hour, according to size; perch, ten minutes to a quarter of an hour; trout and haddocks, from twenty to twenty-five minutes; brill, small, ten minutes; large, about fifteen minutes; skate, rather over a quarter of an hour; small eels, half-an-hour; whiting, ten minutes for a large fish; pike, half-an-hour to one hour; salmon, six to eight minutes for every pound weight.

A few vegetables, such as sliced carrots and onions, may be cooked with fish; but of course, as they require much longer boiling, they must be partly done before they are added, with the water in which they have been boiled.

Sweet herbs—bay-leaf or thyme—or a little celery, is by some considered an improvement. Some persons pour a little vinegar into the water in which fish are to be cooked.

#### 162.—Salt Fish

REQUIRES soaking generally for a considerable time—ten or twelve hours, or even more—but is usually purchased already soaked. It should be put into boiling water in which parsnips have been previously cooked. Time required—about twenty minutes.

#### 163.-Stewed Fish.

EELS.—Wash the eels, cut them into pieces two or three inches long, pepper and salt them, and lay them in the saucepan with sufficient water to cover. Simmer gently for half-an-hour, keeping the lid on close. Chop up and throw in a little boiled parsley. Work up a little butter and flour, and stir in and boil for three minutes longer.

Soles may be cooked in the same way, whole.

Dutch Plaice, cut into pieces and similarly stewed, are very good.

Some persons skin the eels and soles, but it is quite unnecessary.

Many other fish are good stewed.

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## 164:-To Fry Fish.

By far the best plan for frying large fish is to cut them up into pieces of a suitable size. Make a smooth, thin batter with a little flour and water. Put sufficient fat—lard or dripping—into the frying-pan, and set it on the fire. When the fat is hot, dip each piece of fish into the batter and drop it into the pan. Fry them until they are of a nice light brown colour, turning them over.

The smaller fish, such as soles and flounders, may be fried in hot fat whole, without batter. The fashionable method is to brush them over with egg beaten up, and then to sprinkle them with bread-crumbs, but this is quite unnecessary except when appearance has to be studied. In eqoking soles it is customary to strip off the skin from the dark side.

## 165.—Fried Sprats.

PLACE a thoroughly clean frying-pan on the fire until it is hot, sprinkle a little salt into it, and lay in the sprats, having previously wiped them gently with a cloth. In about two minutes turn them with the blade of a knife, and leave them about three minutes longer. Serve hot.

## 166,-Broiled Mackerel.

CLEAN carefully and split open. Pepper and salt, and broil over a clear fire. Clean the bars of the gridiron, and rub them with a little grease before laying on the fish. Time—about ten minutes.

# 167.—Broiled Haddocks (Fresh).

DRAW and clean the fish, and dry them with a cloth. Let the gridiron get hot, and rub the bars with a little grease. Dredge a little flour over the haddocks, and lay them on; turn while cooking. They will take about a quarter of an hour.

#### 168.-Dried Haddocks.

LAY the haddock in a dish and pour boiling water over it; dry with a cloth, and warm it through on the gridiron over a clear fire. Be very careful that it is not overdone. Bub a little butter over it.

#### 169.-Baked Hake.

CLEAN, stuff with veal stuffing, and sew the fish up with fine string; set in a baking-dish and put into a hot oven. The time required varies with size. Let it bake until the flesh parts easily from the bones.

## 170.-Red Herring and Dried Sprats.

THERE is no better mode of cooking the common red herring or bloater than before the fire or on a gridiron. If too salt they may be scaked previously for a couple of hours, having first cut them up the back. Dried sprats may be eaten raw or cooked in a similar manner.

#### 171.-Mussels.

Wash, put into a saucepan with a little water, and boil sharply for ten minutes. Remove the beard and black part before cating.

#### 172.—Periwinkles and Cockles

ARE cooked in the same way.

#### 173.-Whelks

Should be put alive into water for a few hours to cleanse. They will require boiling in salt and water for from three-quarters of an hour to an hour and a quarter. There is a small bag to be taken out before eating. The larger whelks are sometimes taken out of the shells after boiling and fried in plenty of fat.

174.—Shrimps

ARE boiled in salt and water until they change colour, which will be in a few minutes.

# POTATOES.

POTATOES are too well known and highly appreciated for it to be necessary to recommend them. It is proper, however, to remind our readers that they contain scarcely any flesh-forming elements, and could not be used exclusively as food. There are a great many varieties of the cultivated potato in this country, known as "kidneys," "rounds," "reds," "blues," "whites," "flukes," "York Regents," &c., but some of these are becoming less known, the different kinds of "kidneys," "rounds," and "whites" being generally preferred.

The heavier a sound potato is for its size the more starch it contains, and, as there is very little of any value in a potato besides starch, the better it is. To cook a potato well is really a simple matter, but care is required—first in the selection. By some people a "waxy" potato is preferred. Others, and we fancy most persons, like a "floury" or "mealy" potato; but as they differ in flavour and character according to the soil in which they are grown and the manner of their cultivation, it is hard to give any rule for their selection.

#### 175.—To Boil a Potato.

Wash the potatoes thoroughly in cold water, and use a brush to remove the dirt from the "eyes" and other places where it is likely to lodge. When clean put them into a saucepan and pour boiling water over them, and boil for a couple of minutes; shut the lid down close, and let the saucepan stand

on the hob sufficiently near the fire to keep the water just below boiling point. In three-quarters of an hour the potatoes will be done. Strain off and serve them in their skins. There is no possible method of getting the full flavour of potatoes if they are peeled before being cooked.

Dr. Smith says that kind of potato "should be preferred which becomes mealy in boiling, and which when well cooked can be thoroughly crushed with the finger. The potato which is known as 'waxy,' and those which remain hard when boiled, do not digest so readily as the mealy kind. . . . Hence the York Regents are to be preferred to 'Shaws." Young potatoes have a very agreeable flavour, but the immature state of the starch-cells renders them of less value in nutrition than the mature potato. When potatoes have been long kept, and become dry and shrivelled, they have lost much of their nutriment; and the same remark may be made in reference to sprouted potatoes which has already been recorded in reference to sprouted grain. The potato is most fitted for food in the heat of the summer, in the autumn, and the early part of winter."

### 176.—To Fry Potatoes.

PEEL the potatoes and cut them into thin slices; put plenty of fat into the frying-pan, and let it get very hot; throw the slices into the pan a few at a time, and move them about to prevent their sticking. When nicely browned take them out and sprinkle salt over them.

Cold boiled potatoes may be cooked in a similar manner. Take care, however, that they are not wet, to prevent which dry them previously in a cloth.

# CABBAGES, GREENS, &c.

Our common garden vegetables are not only nutritious and agreeable, but very valuable in other respects, and should therefore be eaten freely. The most important for the actual nourishment they supply are peas and beans of various kinds; but cabbage, turnip-tops, and other greens, with carrots, turnips, parsnips, &c., are equally worthy of a place on the dinner-table. Their preparation is a matter of extreme simplicity.

#### 177.—Cabbages.

REMOVE the hard outside leaves, divide the cabbage into four, and cut away a part of the hard middle stalk from each piece. Sprinkle the divided cabbage with salt and lay the pieces aside for ten minutes. Then put them into cold water and soak for a short time. Be particular to wash them thoroughly clean, which there will be little difficulty in doing, as the salt

will have killed any insects or small slugs. Put the cabbage into boiling water with a piece of soda about the size of a pea, shut down the saucepanlid, and simmer until tender, which will be in from half to three-quarters of an hour.

#### 178.—Cauliflower.

REMOVE the coarse outside leaves, cut off a portion of the hard stalk, sprinkle with salt, and wash in cold water, and proceed as directed above. Be careful not to spoil the appearance of the cauliflower.

# 179.—Brussels Sprouts.

PICK off any decaying parts, wash and put into boiling water, and simmer with salt and a morsel of soda. Time—about a quarter of an hour.

# 180.-Broccoli and Turnip-Tops.

PICK away decayed leaves, wash, remove the tough stalks, put into boiling water with salt and small piece of soda. Simmer—broccoli twenty minutes; turnip-tops ten minutes.

# 181.—Spinach.

PREPARE as above. Simmer in a very little water (say half-a-pint) for five to ten minutes. Press it down occasionally with a spoon while cooking.

# 182.—Carrots and Turnips

ARE generally cooked with meat; we have given directions elsewhere.

#### 183.—Parsnips

SHOULD be scraped, cut, if large, into two or more pieces, put into boiling water, and simmered for three-quarters of an hour or more. Serve hot with butter, pepper, and salt.

# 184.--Vegetable Marrows.

WIFE with a damp cloth, put them into boiling water, and simmer until tender, say half-an-hour more or less according to age. When done take them out and cut into halves or quarters and remove the seeds. They require pepper and salt and a little butter.

# 185.-Green Peas

REQUIRE boiling from twelve to fifteen minutes when young, and from twenty to twenty-five minutes if large. Put a little green mint into the saucepan with them, and keep the lid closely shut down. When done strain through a colander.

#### 186.—Broad Beans.

Pur the shelled beans into a saucepan of boiling water into which a little salt has been thrown, and boil for about fifteen minutes if young, longer if older and larger. Parsley and butter is generally served with broad beans, unless they are boiled with bacon.

#### 187.-French Beans.

Cur off the ends of the beans, and remove the "strings" from each side. Divide each into three or four pieces and put into boiling water with a little salt and a morsel of soda, and boil for a quarter of an hour or twenty minutes.

#### 188.-To Cook Onions.

Put the onions, with or without their skins, into a saucepan of boiling water and boil for a quarter for an hour; then pour off the water and replace it with fresh, and boil for another hour and a quarter. Eat with pepper and salt and a bit of butter.

# SALAD VEGETABLES.

THE most common vegetables used for salads are onion, watercresses, radishes, celery, lettuces, mustard and cress, and cucumbers.

All these may be eaten with advantage when in season, excepting, perhaps, the cucumber, of which the best that can be said is that it is very delicious.

Recipes for salads are all but innumerable. We can only give two or three of the most simple, leaving our readers to vary them at pleasure and according to season:—

Cut up small one good-sized lettuce and one pennyworth of watercress; chop up a dozen leaves of mint and a few spring onions. Mix and add vinegar and sugar with a tablespoonful of salad-oil.

Two lettuces, two handfuls of mustard and cress, ten young radishes, and a cucumber. Cut up the lettuces, slice the cucumber and radishes, mix with the mustard and cress, add vinegar or sauce. A hard-boiled egg would be an improvement.

Endive, celery, mustard and cress, cut up and mixed in any proportion that may be agreeable and convenient. One or more hard-boiled eggs chopped fine. Add vinegar and salad-oil or sauce.

Salads should not be prepared long before they are to be eaten.

A teaspoonful of mixed mustard, a teaspoonful of sugar, one or two tablespoonfuls of salad-oil, with vinegar and pepper, will make a good sauce for most salads.

# A SHORT CHAPTER ON EGGS.

A MODERN writer says—"It is impossible to exaggerate the value of eggs as an article of food, whether from their universal use, or the convenient form in which the food is preserved, presented and cooked, and the nutriment they contain." We may add that there are few persons, if any, with whom they do not agree, and to whom they are not agreeable. They are equally suitable for the sick or convalescent, and for a person in health. The digestibility of an egg depends very much upon the cooking. They are most indigestible when hard boiled or otherwise overcooked, and a pudding with many eggs in it will frequently disagree with a weak stomach for that reason.

# 189.-To Ascertain if an Egg is Fresh.

HOLD it up to a strong light; if it looks clear it will be good, if thick it is stale; if there is a black spot attached to the shell it is bad. It is also a common practice to apply the tongue to the large end of the egg; if it feels warm it is fresh and good.

# 190.—Duck's Eggs.

Duck's eggs are considered a delicacy by many persons, but both duck and goose eggs have a stronger flavour than those of the hen. They are usually considered best for puddings, &c.

# 191.—To Boil an Egg.

THERE are many different directions given for performing this simple process; here is M. Soyer's plan:—

"Put a pint of water into a small pan; when boiling put two eggs and boil according to size—from two and a-half to four minutes."

#### Here is another.

To boil eggs lightly requires three minutes; to suit the generality of tastes three and three-quarters to four minutes; to boil eggs hard six to seven minutes.

The best plan that we know is to put the egg into boiling water, shut the lid down close, and put the saucepan on the hob where it will be off the boil; it may be left there for five or ten minutes.

#### 192.—To Poach an Egg.

EGGS for poaching should be perfectly fresh, but not quite new laid—in a new-laid egg the white is difficult to set. Pour boiling water into a perfectly clean frying-pan, break the egg into a cup without injuring the yolk, and when the water boils remove the pan to the side of the fire and gently all,

the egg into it. Place the pan over a gentle fire and keep simmering until the white looks nicely set, when the egg is ready. When the egg is slipped into the water the white should be gathered together to keep it a little in form. Take it up gently with a tin slice, and serve hot with toasted bread. Use a little butter, pepper, and salt with the egg.

A much simpler, and in some respects easier, method is recommended by Mrs. Buckton, who directs the egg, when it has been broken into a cup, to be slipped into a saucepan containing boiling water. The saucepan should be immediately lifted off the fire, the lid shut down close, and left on the hob for five or ten minutes.

### 193.—Raw Egg and Tea or Coffee.

A BAW egg beaten up and stirred into a cup of hot coffee or tea is very nourishing, and may be taken with advantage under many circumstances.

# FRUIT PUDDINGS AND PIES.

THERE can be no use in repeating over and over again, in the manner of an ordinary cookery-book, the directions for making pies and puddings, as if they varied materially with every kind of fruit. We have already given the method of making pie and pudding crust, and practice will teach much better than anything else how those directions may be occasionally varied.

In fruit pies most people place a small cup in the middle, upside down, to collect the juice, but the advantage is doubtful. A little sugar should always be added to the fruit.

# 194.-Apple Pie.

PARE the apples, cut them into quarters, take out the cores, and then slice them up. Add a few cloves or a little lemon-peel. When a small quince can be obtained it wonderfully improves the flavour.

#### 195.—Rhubarb.

WHEN young the rhubarb can be cut up without skinning; when older it would be stringy unless skinned. Add a little lemon-peel and sugar.

#### 196.—Gooseberries.

WASH the fruit and clip off the stalk, &c.

### 197.-Rhubarb and Gooseberry.

Use about half gooseberry and half rhubarb.

#### 198.-Current Pie.

STALK the currants; add sugar. Red currants and black currants, or both mixed, are more generally used for pies than white. A few raspberries added to the currants make a delicious pie or pudding.

### 199.—Plum Pie (of all kinds).

STALK and wipe ; add sugar.

# 200.-Cherry Pie.

Wash and stalk; add sugar. A few red currants improve the flavour, and make a favourite and economical pie.

## 201.—Turnovers.

TURNOVERS are made by cutting a piece of dough the size of a cheeseplate. Put the fruit and sugar on one half, and double over the other half to cover. Pinch the edges together, and press them up with the thumb and finger. Apples, cherries, and plums are the best fruits for turnovers, and a "ahort" crust is preferable. Currants, gooseberries, and rhubarb are too juicy and not easily sweetened.

# 202.-Fruit Puddings.

THE remarks respecting fruit for pies are sufficient for puddings also. Directions for pudding crust have been already given.

# 203.-Apple Dumplings.

PEEL the apples, and put each into a suet crust. Tie them up separately, each in a floured cloth. Put into boiling water, and boil for three-quarters of an hour. If preferred, the apples may be cut each into four pieces and cored.

# 204.-Baked Rice Pudding.

TARE a teacupful of rice, wash it, and put it into the pie-dish with two tablespoonfuls of moist sugar, two small tablespoonfuls of fine chopped suet, one quart of milk, and a little grated nutmeg. Bake two hours in a moderate oven, as time is required for the rice to swell. This is a very economical and nourishing pudding.

# 205.—Baked Rice Custard Pudding.

Pur one small teacupful of rice into a saucepan, with a pint of water. Simmer until the rice is thoroughly swollen, then put it into a basin. Stir in two tablespoonfuls of fine moist sugar, with half-a-pint of cold milk. Beat up four eggs into another half-pint of milk, flavour with essence of almond or lemon and a little nutmeg, and add to it. Well butter the dish, and pour in the whole. Bake for three-quarters of an hour. A few currants or sultana raisins, with slices of candied peel, may be added.

#### 206.-Macaroni.

One quarter of a pound of macaroni broken up into pieces about an inch in length. Put them into a saucepan, with a pint of hot water and a pinch of salt. Gently boil until soft. Strain through a colander. To a pint of milk add two well-beaten eggs and two small tablespoonfuls of sugar; flavour with nutmeg and essence of almond or lemon. Grease the dish, put in the macaroni when a little cool, and pour over the milk and eggs. Bake for three-quarters of an hour. If required to be richer add more egg.

# 207.—Tapioca.

Wash three ounces of tapioca and simmer it gently in a little milk, or milk and water, for a quarter of an hour, occasionally stirring it. Put it into a basin, and when cool add one quart of milk, two ounces of butter, three ounces of sugar, three well-beaten eggs, and flavour with essence of lemon or a little nutmeg. Well stir, and pour into a well-greased dish. Bake for an hour.

# 208.-Baked Bread Pudding.

BREAK up any odd pieces of bread, pour over them as much boiling water as they will take up, and let them stand until cool; press the water out, and mash the bread up with a fork until it is free from lumps. Add currants, flavour with nutmeg, and put about three ounces of sugar to a quart of mashed bread. Well stir the whole and put into a well-greased dish, smooth down the surface of the pudding with the back of a spoon, and bake an hour and a half for a moderate-sized pudding. A little milk and an egg will make a great improvement.

# 209.-Bread and Butter Pudding.

GREASE a pie-dish and fill with thin slices of bread and butter, sprinkling in a few currants with every layer. Pour in as much milk as necessary, previously adding to the milk two well-beaten eggs and two tablespoonfuls of sugar to every pint, with the usual flavouring of nutmeg or lemon. Bake in a moderate oven for three-quarters of an hour or an hour.

# 210.-Swiss Pudding.

THOROUGHLY break up one pound of stale crumb of bread; mix with it two ounces of fine chopped suet, half-a-teaspoonful of nutmeg, a little grated lemon peel, and three ounces of sugar. Put a layer of the bread-crumbs into a greased dish, then a layer of thin-sliced apples, then another layer of crumbs, and so on, finishing off with a layer of crumbs. Pour over a teacupful of milk. Bake for an hour in a moderate oven.

# 211.—Baked Plum Pudding.

TAKE one pound of flour well mixed with half-a-teaspoonful of salt, rub in one ounce of dripping, add six ounces of finely-chopped suet, half-a-pound of raisine, and half-a-pound of currents, with a little mixed spice and two ounces of sugar. Stir thoroughly, and make into a stiff batter. Put into a well-greased dish and bake. A good plain family pudding.

# 212.-Baked Suet Pudding.

ONE pound of flour, half-a-teaspoonful of salt, six ounces of finely-chopped suct. Make into a stiff batter, and bake in a well-greased dish.

The above may be made a little richer with two eggs, when the batter must be thinner.

### 213.—Plain Yorkshire or Batter Pudding.

ONE pound of flour, half-a-teaspoonful of salt, two eggs. If to be baked under the meat, mix to a thin batter with water; if baked without, mix with milk.

# 214.—Baked Apple Dumplings.

PEEL the apples, and put each into a crust made either with suct or dripping. Join the paste nicely and bake on a tin for half-an-hour, or longer if the apples are large.

# 215.-Pancakes.

ONE pound of flour, a teaspoonful of salt. Beat up four eggs and put them into u pint of water. With this make the flour into a smooth, thin batter. Make the frying-pan hot, and put in a piece of dripping the size of a walnut. When the fat boils pour in a small teacupful of batter into the pan and fry for about five minutes; when set turn it over, and fry the other side to a nice brown. Sprinkle over with sugar and serve hor. Make the batter half-an-hour before it is wanted.

# BOILED PUDDINGS.

# 216.—Suet Pudding.

ONE pound of flour, half-a-teaspoonful of salt, six ounces of suet; mix into a very stiff batter, put into a greased basin, tie over a wet pudding-cloth, and boil for an hour and a quarter.

# 217.—Currant Dumplings.

ONE pound of flour, six ounces of suet, half-a-pound of currants, and two small teaspoonfuls of sugar; mix into a limp paste with water. Divide into seven or eight dumplings, and drop into boiling water with or without cloths. Boil for an hour or an hour and a quarter. Let them have plenty of room.

# 218.-"Roley-Poley" Pudding.

ROLL out a suet crust to the thickness of half-an-inch, and spread over it some jam or treacle, or for a plainer pudding a little moist sugar and mixed spice. Roll it up, fasten the ends securely, and boil for an hour and a-half or more, according to size. This is an easily made and very handy pudding.

# 219.—Boiled Rice Pudding.

Wash half-a-pound of rice, and tie it up in a cloth, leaving sufficient room for the rice to swell. Put it into cold water and boil gently for an hour and a-half. Serve with a little sugar and milk.

# 220.-A Plain Plum Pudding.

HALF-A-QUARTEEN of flour, half-a-pound of currents and one pound of raisins, three-quarters of a pound of suet, a small teaspoonful of mixed spice, and two ounces of sugar. Mix the ingredients well, and make it into a very thick batter with one pint of milk or water. The in a cloth moderately tight, and boil two hours and a-half.

### 221.-A Richer Plum Pudding.

A POUND and a-half of flour, one pound of currants, one pound of plums (carefully stoned), one pound of fine chopped suet, two teaspoonfuls of mixed spice, two grated apples, the rind of a lemon grated, the rind of an orange grated, a quarter of a pound of candied peel, and half-a-pound of sugar-Mix the ingredients and make into a batter with sufficient water and four well-beaten eggs. Boil for six hours.

More Christmas puddings are spoiled by the attempt to make them rich than is generally imagined. This pudding will be found more agreeable than many that are much more expensive.

#### 222.-A Good Wholesome Cake.

ONE pound of flour, one teaspoonful of baking-powder, six ounces of sugar, as much grated nutmeg as will lie on a threepenny-piece, a teacupful of currants, or a large tablespoonful of caraways, all thoroughly mixed with six ounces of butter or clean dripping well rubbed in. Beat up two eggs and add them to a teacupful of milk. With this mix the material quickly and well, put into a greased tin, and bake for an hour and a-half. Put it into the oven directly.

#### 223.-Plain Rice Cake.

HALF-A-POUND of flour, half-a-pound of ground rice, a teaspoonful of baking-powder, a quarter of a pound of butter, lard, or dripping, a quarter of a pound of sugar, a small teacupful of milk, and two well-beaten eggs. Flavour with eight or ten drops of essence of lemon or almonds. Mix and bake as above in a shallow tin or dish.

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# 224.—Dough Cake.

Two pounds of dough from the baker's, half-a-pound of clean dripping, six ounces of sugar, half-a-pound of currants, or two tablespoonfuls of caraways, as much mixed spice as will lie on a sixpence, two ounces of mixed peel. Well mix into the dough, if in cold weather by the fire, and send to the bakehouse. If baked at home, let it stand on the hob for awhile to rise. Then bake for one hour and a-half.

# CLOTHING.

EVERY woman ought to be able to use her needle. There is always a good bit of mending to be done in a family, and the old proverb of "A stitch in time saves nine" is a very true one. Besides mending, there will be the making up and altering from time to time the various articles of clothing for herself, her husband, and the children. To purchase everything ready-made, or to be obliged to give them out to be made up, is a very serious thing for a working-man's family. It is not to be expected that a woman should do tailors' work, and make her husband's coats and trousers, but there are a great many repairs which may be done by a good needlewoman. Most articles of underclothing should be made at home, and it will be much easier to get a new dress when it is only necessary to buy the material. It adds considerably to the cost to be obliged to send it to the dressmaker.

To know what to buy and how to buy it is as necessary in this department of household economy as any other, for there is a great difference between the wearing qualities of many articles apparently very similar, and it is not always safe to trust to the judgment and honesty of tradesmen. The housewife should therefore endcavour to learn how to distinguish between the various fabrics, and take care that she really gets the articles required.

One general rule may be laid down in purchasing articles of dress, that the best qualities of every suitable description are really the cheapest in the end.

For instance, an Aberdeen winsey is a cheap and extremely durable material for gowns and petticoats and children's frocks. There is no texture known that looks so well and keeps up its appearance or wears so long. The Yorkshire and Glasgow fabrics are much lower in price, but they do not wear so well or last so long, and therefore are not nearly so cheap. The all-wool French merinocs and the French de laines are very beautiful and durable, surpassing any English manufacture; but they are too expensive to come within the reach of most artizans' wives. Black and coloured alpacas and Orleans, of Yorkshire make, may be strongly recommended for best dresses.

All-wool Scotch plaids for shawls, dresses, and children's frocks are, to use

a common expression, "everlasting wear." The Scotch plaids with cotton "warp" are very durable and cheap, but they do not after a time look so well nor wear like the all-wool. A brown Scotch derry is something like the "all-wool" Scotch plaid for wear.

Black Cobourgs for mourning are next to French merinoes for durability.

In flannels, again, care is required, as the difference in quality is so great. The cheapest, in first cost, are the Lancashire or merino; but they are not to be compared with the Welsh, which have a reputation all over the world. Welsh flannels for petticoats, flannel shirts, and drawers vary in price from season to season; but can generally be procured from tenpence to several shillings per yard. Select a good quality, and there is nothing which will be found more durable and in every respect so satisfactory.

Many persons imagine there is a virtue in new flannel and calico which disappears on washing. This is a mistake. Both these articles should be washed with soap in warm water, and well rinsed in cold water before they are cut out and made up. New flannel contains both oil and lime, which are much more easily removed before the flannel is worn than when the fabric has been filled up with dust and hardened by the air.

Witney blanketing is expensive, though very warm and durable; perhaps the cheapest and best for common wear are the coloured blankets now so commonly to be bought in all large towns.

Barnsley sheetings and tablecloths, and homespuns for under-wear, and huckabacks for towels, are also to be strongly recommended—not Scotch in either case. The Scotch look finer, whiter, and nicer, but do not wear so well.

Nothing looks better for summer wear than a well-selected, "well-covered" cotton print—that is, one in which the pattern well covers the ground. Hoylo's prints are without question the best.

The great fault with cotton prints is that in many of them the colours will not stand the wash. It is, therefore, a good plan after selecting a pattern to ask the tradesman for a small piece, and try it at home by giving it a good washing in soap and water. If the shopkeeper will not give a sample for this purpose go to another who will. In ready-money dealings a customer is under no obligation, and need not be dictated to or imposed upon.

Underclothing for everyday wear is best made of unbleached calico; it is much stronger than bleached, and wears and washes white.

For pinafores, and other articles made of brown holland, there is nothing to equal the Belfast manufacture.

Cotton socks and stockings, especially for men and boys—and woman's everyday wear—should be of what are known in the trade as "best make," and unbleached.

Hand-knitted guernsey frocks and Smedley's merino shirts for men's wear are best when they can be purchased, but Smedley's shirts cannot be obtained everywhere.

Scotch tweeds are so superior in all respects, and are so much more durable than the Yorkshire tweeds, that, notwithstanding the difference in price, they are cheaper in the end.

We have said above that it is best not to buy clothes ready-made; as a rule they are expensive in more ways than one. One reason is that the quality of the material is not to be depended on; but there are exceptions—men's corduroys, engineers' overalls, painters' jackets, and similar articles it is better purchase of the clothier ready-made.

# 225.—Underclothing.

FLANNEL should always be worn in all seasons of the year; it is the best possible protection against the sudden changes of climate to which we are exposed in this country, and is both warm for winter wear and cool in summer heats. Dr. Halton, in his interesting Short Lectures on Sanitary Subjects, says, "Our first consideration must be devoted to the material which should lie next the skin night and day.

# 226.-Linen.

"LINEN was for a long time considered, and by many people is still considered, to be the best material for this purpose; but a little reflection will suffice to show the many objections there are to its use in this capacity. First, it is very cold to the feel, probably because it very readily absorbs moisture from the atmosphere; secondly, it is an excellent conductor of the heat, and consequently conveys away the heat generated in the body with great rapidity; thirdly, it retains the perspiration which occurs during exercise, and when exercise is over, if it is not immediately changed, it feels wet and uncomfortable and is very liable to give cold. The same objections hold good against its use for sheeting, as it gives the body a most dangerous chill on lying down; and if the weather happens to be wet and the atmosphere moist, the sheets may become absolutely damp.

#### 227.—Cotton.

"Cotton, the next most popular material, possesses several advantages over linen, but it wears out more rapidly than linen, and hence is not so generally serviceable. Linen and cotton being thus excluded, we next come to fiannel, and here we have a material which combines everything we require as a skincovering in our climate. It is a bad conductor of heat, and therefore it retains heat much longer, so that leaving a warm room and going into the cold street we suffer no chill, and the flannel parts with its heat so slowly that we have time to get up the circulation by exercise before we get dangerously cool. There have been very interesting experiments performed to test this heat-retaining property of flannel. We will give one in which it was compared with both linen and calico. A metal vessel was filled with hot water and covered with flannel, a second similar one was covered with cotton, and a third with linen. The water under the linen took only seven minutes and a-half to cool, the water under the cotton took nine minutes and three-quarters, while the water under the flannel retained its heat for twelve minutes and a-half.

#### 228.-Flannel

"When we add to the foregoing fact that it has been ascertained by the Registrar-General's returns that since the more general adoption of flannel underclothing the mortality from chest diseases has notably diminished, we shall have no difficulty in assigning to flannel the first place as a covering for the skin. With regard to the almost universal habit of leaving off flannel in the summer, it may be said with considerable confidence that it is a most injudicious practice. A thinner flannel vest may be used in summer, but it is precisely at this season in our climate that the most sudden changes of temperature occur, and frequently after a very hot day in June the evening temperature becomes suddenly lowered; or, again, a hot week is often succeeded by a week in which the weather is considerably cooler, even in July. A flannel vest, then, of some sort should be worn next the skin all the year round, and in winter a pair of flannel drawers, coming up high round the waist, should be added. The protection which this gives against attacks of dysentery or cholera is not the least of its advantages. In summer time a cotton shirt may be worn over the flannel, while a flannel shirt should be worn in winter. This mode of protecting the skin is suitable to all ages and both sexes, and its general adoption would undoubtedly produce a striking improvement in the public health. This improvement would not only show itself in a lessened mortality from those diseases usually produced or aggravated by chill, but the nervous system being saved many shocks from cold (and there is no evil influence of which it is more susceptible), the state of health of the individual would range at a much higher level, and thus he would be less liable to catch fever or other infectious disease."

## 229.—Outer Clothing.

For outer clothing the hints we have already given will perhaps be sufficient, only remarking that nothing is better or more suitable for every-day wear for an artizan—except in cases where corduroy or fustian are necessary for working suits—than tweeds. For Sunday wear a best suit of black cloth is, of course, very nice, and when made of good material will last a long time with care.

#### 230.—Stockings.

Worsted stockings for the winter and cotton for the summer should be the rule, as the feet ought to be kept warm and dry. It is therefore advisable to pay attention also to the boots, not only to keep them in repair, but to see that they are suitably made. At the risk of shocking some of our readers, we strongly recommend for both women and children front-laced leather boots, with what are known in the trade as "double soles." To our taste there is nothing looks neater when well made, well cleaned, and properly laced, and we are confident there is nothing better for wear, and more suitable for all the purposes which a boot is intended to serve. High heels are uncomfortable, expensive, dangerous, and, because they throw the foot into an unnatural position, absolutely injurious.

#### 231.—Bonnets.

SMALL bonnets and hats are at the present time so universally worn, and their fashion is so continually changing, that it is impossible to say much about them. If, however, the neck and face are exposed to the weather, it may sometimes be necessary to adopt precautions against attacks of neuralgia, which the present fashions are calculated to produce. In such cases we advise the bathing of the face and the back of the neck every morning in cold water, to which a tablespoonful of salt and a little vinegar has been added, rabbing the skin dry afterwards with a coarse towel.

# 232.-Weight of Clothing, &c.

MANY women suffer a good deal from the weight of their dress, especially from the common habit of suspending the petticoats round the waist, so that the weight has to be borne on the loins. Under some circumstances, and in certain conditions, this is very injurious, and as it admits of a simple remedy should not be tolerated. A couple of pieces of strong webbing, cut of the required length to serve as a pair of braces, should be made to join with a crosspiece to come across the shoulders. These suspenders may fasten to the petticoat with buttons behind and before, or a strong wire hook can easily be made to attach more than one article of dress.

It is to be hoped that none of our readers need to be cautioned against tight-lacing, one of the most absurd habits ever suggested by vanity and adopted by ignorance. If they do, we can only repeat what has been urged a thousand times before against the practice, that a small waist is not elegant tested by any of the canons of taste—that if it were it would be purchased at too high a price if it is to be obtained by tight-lacing, which, compressing the most vital parts of the body, pushes the liver out of its place, injures the digestion by its effect on the stomach, and frequently deranges the action of the heart; while as it sooner or later causes a red nose, it can scarcely be said to improve the personal appearance of any one who indulges in it.

It is a great pity that persons should attempt to dress above their station in life. Neatness and comfort are far preferable to finery, and to sacrifice them to vanity is a great mistake. Scrupulous neatness and cleanliness add a charm to personal appearance which nothing else can supply, and to secure these should be the aim of a working-man's wife. It should be her endeavour to avoid slovenliness on the one side and mere finery on the other. We really do not know which is the more objectionable; but we do know that unfortunately it sometimes happens that a woman who is "dressy" abroad is slovenly at home, and we can only say when it is so that it is a very pitiful exhibition. It may not be out of place to add that the labouring classes and peasantry, on the Continent are wiser in the matter of dress than the English. The French, Swiss, Norwogians, Danes, Swedes, and Dutch are never to be seen dressed in flimsy and easily worn-out fabrics. They seek for strength and durability in articles of clothing. The Swiss peasant wears her all-wool Calamanca dress for years and always looks nice and tidy in it.

# 233.-Making Children Hardy.

WE must not close this chapter without a word respecting the common notion of making children "hardy" by keeping them without sufficient warm clothing. Only very strong children will be likely to survive this treatment, and whenever the practice is adopted frequent illness must be expected. Colds, coughs, congestion and inflammation of the lungs are often brought on in this way, and many children who are exposed to this hardening process grow up confirmed invalids.

# THE FAMILY.

PARENTS cannot begin too early to exercise thoughtful care for the well-being of their children. As soon as a woman has reason to believe that she is in the way to become a mother a mother's responsibilities commence; and she should remember that much that concerns the welfare of her off-spring is determined by her own habits before its birth. All undue excitement should be avoided; excessive exercise and fatigue scrupulously guarded against; nourishing and easily-digested food should be taken in moderate quantities and at proper intervals, carefully abstaining from everything likely to disagree with the stomach. Malt liquors, as well as wine and spirits—notwithstanding the common prejudice in their favour as strengthening—should be avoided. The action of the bowels ought to be carefully regulated and, when necessary, secured by gentle remedies, on no account resorting to the use of strong medicines excepting under professional advice.

#### 234.—Infancy.

WITH the birth of the infant a new set of conditions arise, but the health of the mother and that of her child continue to be almost inseparable. The following directions are taken from Dr. Smith's Practical Dietary:—

"It cannot be doubted that the proper food for an infant is the milk of the mother or of a properly-chosen substitute, since it is that which Nature has provided, and the propriety of the plan is attested by universal experience. This should, if possible, be the sole food until the infant has attained to at least three months of age. After the age of three months circumstances occur which render it not advisable to depend upon that source. Such are—the drain upon the mother, the convenience of being able to leave the infant for a few hours when necessary, the possibility of failure of the supply from illness or other cause, and the deterioration in the quality of the mother's milk which always occurs after a certain number of months. But, in the absence of any imperative reason to the contrary, the infant may be fed by the mother or nurse entirely until it has attained to nine or ten months of

age; or it may be partly fed from other sources after three months of age, at the discretion of the mother.

#### 235.—Infant's Food.

"THE most common reasons for feeding an infant are deficient supply of milk on the part of the mother or nurse, and deterioration in the quality of the milk." The first of these will not be difficult to ascertain. The latter is not so easily discovered; "but if the infant do not thrive, or is peevish, and no other cause is evident, it is always wise to assume that the mother's or nurse's milk is at fault; and this will be the more likely if the health or state of constitution of the mother is not good, and if the infant be over six months of age.

"When food other than the mother's or nurse's milk is required it should be milk only—that is to say, it should consist of milk without the addition of bread, arrowroot, flour, biscuit, or any other substance whatever except sugar. The reasons for this are that the milk still contains all the elements of nutrition required by the child, and that the absence of a nitrogeneous principle in the juices of the stomach and bowels of the infant either entirely prevents the transformation of starchy food or greatly lessens it. When infants have been fed with flour, it will be found that the stools are much larger than is proper for an infant; and, in fact, that much of the starchy matter is passing off unused. This is a constant source of derangement of the liver and a frequent cause of fits. But much more to be reprehended is the plan of feeding an infant with sop, consisting of bread or biscuit with water and sugar, and with only a very small quantity, if any, of milk added; for as the foods other than milk and sugar are not digested, and as the quantity of milk is insufficient alone to support the infant, it follows that starvation, or some approach thereto, must occur. Again, some feed infants on cream and water, in the belief that they are thus offering a food richer than milk: but in so doing they fall into grievous error, and the child rapidly pines away. The explanation is that the cream is composed entirely of fat, except the small quantity of milk which accompanies cream when skimmed off the milk, and fat by itself is totally inadequate to sustain life."

In giving milk—that is, cow's milk—it is advisable to add one half water, and to sweeten it with lump sugar, a piece of the size of a pea to each half-pint. We are speaking, of course, of good new milk, and every effort should be made to obtain it pure and frosh. Before the passing of the Adulteration Act it was very difficult to do this except in country places; but the penalties imposed by the Act have very much checked the once universal practice of watering the milk by the dealers.

# 236.—Feeding-Bottles.

Convenient feeding-bottles, fitted with tubes and teats, may be purchased of the chemists, and these must be kept thoroughly clean, as a sour bottle and dirty teat are likely to spoil the appetite and injure the health of the infant. The milk may be warmed by putting the bottle into warm water, but it should never be made hot.

#### 237.—Intervals of Food and Rest.

"The food, of whatever kind," we quote again from Dr. Smith, "should be supplied at regular intervals during the day and night, but the intervals may be somewhat prolonged during the night. Until four to eight months of age, according to the development of the infant, food should be given every two hours during the day, and every three hours during the night, and if it be of the kind already mentioned no other limit need be placed upon the quantity than the desire of the infant. There is more usually danger of giving the child too little than too much milk, and if the growth be not very satisfactory, and the child be restless and peevish without other evident cause, it may be assumed that the food is insufficient in either quantity or quality. The quantity of food which an infant of two or three months old takes, when the supply is good and abundant, is not less than three pints during the twenty-four hours, and during the period of infancy this quantity is generally exceeded."

An infant will frequently throw up a little curdled milk after being fed; but unless it be formed into a mass, and the quantity be excessive, the action has no particular significance. It is simply a natural effort to relieve the stomach when it has received more than it can for the moment conveniently contain, or when the child has been thrown about a good bit to amuse it.

### 238.-Weaning.

"When the child has arrived at nine or ten months of age, and has been nursed by the mother or nurse during the whole period, it will be time for the supply of food from that source to cease. This is in part owing to the supply usually diminishing about that period, and also to some changes which the quality of the milk undergoes.

"As strong broth and beef tea are given by many persons at this early period of life, it is necessary to add some remarks respecting them. It cannot be doubted that their use is very proper when milk cannot be obtained in sufficient quantity, and that they are much better foods than the sops which are frequently given; but, except under medical advice, they should not be used to supplant milk. Whenever they are allowed as foods they should not be made very strong nor be given in large quantities, and they should retain a fair proportion of fat."

Whilst a mother is thus supplying the nourishment required by her infant, it is clear that she herself must be well fed. The special reasons for objecting to the use of malt liquors during the period preceding the birth of the infant do not apply with the same force to the period of nursing, but they are unnecessary, and if taken at all should be used with extreme moderation. Spirits, however, should be altogether avoided. Everything that is taken by the mother affects the milk, and it is the extreme of cruelty to pollute in this way the nourishment of the infant. The more simple the food, the more regular the living, and the better the health of the nursing mother, the more satisfactorily will she be enabled to meet the wants of her dependent offspring.

# 239.—Registration of Births.

PARENTS or occupiers of houses in which births happen are required to register them at the registrar's office within six weeks after the date thereof. For this registration no fee is charged. After that date a fee of seven shillings and sixpence must be paid. No registration can be made after six months. The particulars required by the registrar will be :-

- 1. Date when born.
- 2. Name of the child.
- 3. Boy or girl.
- 4. Name of father.
- 5. Name and maiden name of mother. 8. Date of registration.
- 6. Rank or profession of father.
- 7. Signature, description, and residence of the person giving the information.

If a child is christened, and any additional name is then given to it, a certificate should be obtained of the clergyman performing the ceremony, for which a shilling is generally charged. This certificate must be taken to the registrar within seven days after the christening. He will add the name to the original registration, charging one shilling for doing so.

WE have spoken elsewhere of food, clothing, and other matters relating to children who have passed the period of infancy. We have here to add a few words upon their moral training and general management.

# 240.-Moral and Physical Training.

Every parent would wish his children to grow up healthy and strong in body, clean and tidy in habit, modest, truthful, and well-behaved. What hope is there of their doing so if they are not properly trained? Spoiled by over-indulgence, or treated with habitual harshness, subject to the caprices of fluctuating, uncertain tempers, surrounded by bad examples, permitted from their earliest years to associate with any chance companions of the street or court, uninstructed in the things most important to be known, and educated in those matters which it is a shame to know, thousands of children even in this country have been allowed to grow up to be a curse to society, a misery to themselves, and a disgrace to those who neglected them. By such results we may measure the importance of the subject of which we are speaking.

# 241.—Early Education.

THE education of a child begins early; before he is two months old he learns to recognise the caressing tone and the loving smile. Day by day the little life expands, and the watchful mother soon finds herself engaged in gently teaching the first lessons of obedience and good habits. From that time forward the home influences are moulding the character of the child, developing its latent capabilities, and shaping for good or evil its entire character. A great deal may be done by judicious training in the first three years of a child's life, and much ought to be done; and many a child, before

it has reached that age, has been irrevocably injured through neglect, or spoiled by over-indulgence or by fussiness, and the unequal tempers of those who have had its management.

#### 242.—Exercise.

CHILDREN should have abundant exercise and be allowed to amuse themselves; they ought not to be cruel or unnecessarily rough or immodest in their play, but there are a great many advantages in allowing them a good deal of freedom in selecting their own amusements. The delight which most children find in running, jumping, climbing, and throwing themselves about is not only natural, but, within certain limits, necessary for the proper development and strengthening of the muscles of the body, some of which will be seldom brought into play if children are too much restrained. Whatever freedom is allowed, disobedience, impertinence, and untruthfulness must never be permitted, nor should a child be suffered to form the habit of waiting to be threatened before he obeys. It will need a most watchful care to check selfishness and to inculcate generosity, to teach the respect due to age, and reverence for God, to whom, from a very early age, he should be taught to address a few simple words of thanksgiving and prayer.

#### 243.—Instruction.

As children grow up they will require other instruction, which should be made as easy and pleasant as possible. The age at which a child should be taught his letters will depend upon circumstances. If he is strong and hearty five will not be too early; if weak and delicate the task may be postponed. The little brain must not be overworked, but he should be taught the importance of learning, and led gradually on to acquire it.

## 244.—Example.

AGAIN, because of its extreme importance, we must repeat that children learn by example more quickly than precept, and that parents who desire the wellbeing of their family should be watchful over their own behaviour. From their lives more than from their words they will learn the lessons of rectitude, patience, contentment, self-denial, fortitude, charity, truthfulness, industry, order, and sobriety.

# HEALTH.

LIFE and death, health and disease, are things over which we are permitted by our Creator to exercise partial control, and in proportion as men have observed the laws of health the average duration of life has steadily extended. Briefly summarised, the conditions of health are as follow:—Cleanliness in the home and its surroundings, including proper drainage and ventilation; suitable clothing; regular living, including proper and sufficient food and rest, with moderate exercise, and avoidance of every kind of excess. Some of these we have already spoken of, and others we shall deal with elsewhere; but there are several points which claim our attention here.

# 245.—A Warning and Illustration.

WHILE we write we have lying before us A History of Epidemic Pestilences, and it is painful to read how many times England has been visited by plague, and the number of people destroyed by it. When it visited London in 1665 more than 7,000 persons died in a single week. How often before this it had broken out in different parts of the country, how widely it spread, and how terrible its ravages were, would take up a great many pages to tell. Nor have we space to speak of the other diseases which have devastated Europe since the "black death," which broke out in the reign of Edward III., and lasted for nine years, destroying an almost incredible number of persons. But the plague of 1665 is remarkable as having been up to the present time the last attack. The reason why the plague and other similar diseases were so common and destructive in former periods, and so comparatively rare and harmless now, may be understood by carefully reading the following passage:—

#### 246.—The Ancient Condition of London.

"It was not until after the great fire of 1666, at the rebuilding of London, as it were, that any measures were taken to secure the public health. In the year 1665, during the time of the great and terrible plague, our streets were narrow, and the houses, which were built of wood, closed inwards towards each other, one story projecting considerably above the other, till they seemed almost to touch each other at the top, and looking upwards from the street towards the sky was very like looking up from the bottom of a well. There were scarcely any sewers; the streets were damp and wet, and nearly everything in the shape of offal was thrown into them, while certain corporate bodies, the ecclesiastical authorities even, contended stoutly for the right of sending swine into the streets, to feed upon such garbage as they found plentifully therein. It would also appear that the general habits of the people in no way counteracted the bad effects of their faulty architecture by domestic cleanliness.

"The celebrated Erasmus asserts that the interior of the dwellings in London were disgusting to the last degree. He plainly ascribed the 'sweating sickness,' which was a species of plague, to the incommodious form and bad position of the houses, the filthiness of the streets, and the sluttishness within doors. In a letter to the physician of Cardinal Wolsey's, in which he gives an account of the domestic habits of our countrymen in those days he says there is a degree of uncloanliness, and even of filth, portrayed, of which we can have no conception in our times. He continues—'The floor are commonly of clay, strewed with rushes, which were occasionally removed,

but underneath lies unmolested an ancient collection of beer, grease, fragments of fish, spittle, the excrements of dogs, cats, and everything that was nasty.' Hentzer observes that even the presence-chamber of the Queen Elizabeth, in Greenwich Palace, was covered with hay, 'after the English fashion;' and Hume remarks, as a proof of the meanness of living in those days, 'that the comptroller of the household of Edward VI. paid only 30s. a year for his house in Channel-row, which, like the generality of the streets of London, was unpaved and undrained, and contained an accumulation of the offal and such filth as was habitually thrown into them.'

"Sydenham, who writes of the changes produced in the amount of disease according to locality, the constitutions of the seasons, &c., notices that London in his day was ill-built, ill-drained, ill-supplied with water, and the neighbouring country, to the very suburbs, so badly cleared as to subject the inhabitants to a return of agues regularly in spring and autumn."

### 247.—The Lesson of the Plague.

NOTHING can be much clearer than the lesson conveyed by this extract. When London was undrained and its inhabitants were dirty and careless in their habits, the plague and other diseases came every now and then and swept the people away by thousands. With wider streets, greater cleanliness, and better drainage, the health of the population has increased until the plague has become unknown, and the visitations of the cholera and similar diseases have been far less deadly. Pretty much the same may be said of all other cities and towns in Europe, and so surely do dirt and disease go hand in hand that the dirty villages and the foul neighbourhoods which now exist are known also as the places where sickness is most common and death more frequent. Even single dirty households are to be dreaded as the possible sources of fevers and other infectious disorders, and every person who values health as it deserves to be will do his best to promote the cleanliness and consequent health of the neighbourhood in which he lives. One important fact deserves to be always borne in mind that it may serve as an encouragement: -A person who observes the laws of health, although living in an unhealthy neighbourhood, is more safe from the attacks of disease than one who lives in a healthy neighbourhood and neglects them.

## 248.-Ventilation.

One essential condition to good health is an abundant supply of fresh air; without this it cannot be secured on any terms. The reason for this is that pure air consists mainly of a mixture of two gases, oxygen and nitrogen, and in the act of breathing we use up the oxygen and the air is returned from the lungs charged with moisture and carbonic acid gas, and totally unfit for the purposes of life. If, therefore, a person were to be shut up in a room from which none of the foul air could escape, and into which no fresh air could enter, the atmosphere would soon become unfit for respiration, and in a shorter or longer time, according to the size of the room, he would inevitably

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die of suffocation. Many instances are on record not very different from this. Dr. Coombe mentions the case of two young men who died on board the Magnus Troil, in Leith Harbour, in March, 1833:—"They had gone to bed in the cabin as usual, but had shut the door so closely on account of the cold that they were found in the morning the one dead and the other dying from mere want of air. Since that time," he continues—that is, since the publication of his work—"I have read in the newspapers of the day accounts of six accidents precisely similar in every respect. The two last, in which two fine young men also perished, happened in the cabin of the sloop Mary Hardie, lying in Greenock Harbour, in November, 1840, from which it is inferred that such cases are by no means infrequent."

Now, although instances of actual suffocation caused by breathing the same air over and over again are sufficiently well known and properly authenticated, they are not so common as those in which an imperfect supply of fresh air has produced fatal diseases. These, indeed, occur every day, and we could fill page after page with details. It will, however, be sufficient to point out here that persons living in close unventilated apartments usually suffer from a general lowering of their health. They become altogether less vigorous, less able to resist the attacks of disease, and often predisposed to consumption. Especially is this the case when the house is damp and dark, as it often is, not only in the narrow courts of our large cities, but in houses of a better class. Dr. Halton, whose work we quoted in a previous chapter, says—

# 249.—Dampness in the Dwelling.

"In considering the physical and moral evils that accrue in a large city ' from the neglect of the rules of sanitary science—and the latter are neither less marked nor less important than the former—the physical evil is at first sight very unequally distributed. In the poorest and most overcrowded parts of the town fever abounds and the general health is at a low standard. The faces of the residents in those localities are generally sallow, and their aspect either sullen or spiritless. Their clothing is very often damp and mouldy that of the female easily torn, and therefore untidy-looking when not absolutely ragged. This is due in part, no doubt, to the inferior character of the fabric when purchased, but there is an additional cause at work in the damp atmosphere which always exists in these crowded rooms. The air is constantly loaded by decaying particles, which in a short space of time penetrate clothing and render it liable to tear on the slightest touch. The general charge sometimes preferred of intentional untidiness and carelessness in the matter of wearing apparel on the part of the poor is therefore very often unfounded. The sodden character of all the back yards in these quarters, and the accumulation of damp dirt which is always to be found in a humid climate like ours on floors, stairs, and passages, in tenement houses, or small overcrowded cottages, has a most deleterious effect on the poor children who inhabit them. They suffer much from cold feet from this cause, and from consequent congestions of other parts, giving rise to many chronic maladies, and even in

some extreme cases causing permanent lameness or crippling, particularly in those predisposed to scrofulous diseases," and it would be difficult to suppose any inhabitant of these localities to be in a state of non-predisposition.

# 250.-Necessity for Light.

"They all breathe bad air, and breathe it constantly; they have little or no sunlight, they are often ill-fed and worse clothed; little more, indeed, is required. A great French pathologist found he could develop tubercular disease of the lungs"—that is, "consumption"—"in healthy rabbits by merely shutting them up in a dark and damp cellar for a sufficient time. It would not, therefore, be surprising if tubercular or scrofulous disease should happen to be both common and fatal in these localities, and that such is the fact is admitted by every one who has given the subject any attention."

We trust our readers, acting upon the advice given in our opening chapter, will very carefully avoid all tenements that are anything like those described in this extract; but the lesson it contains is, nevertheless, very important. Every room should be kept well ventilated if the family is to be healthy. To do this properly requires some care, so as to avoid at the same time violent draughts and their consequent evils. At proper times in the day, when the weather will permit, the windows may be thrown wide open, and the air allowed to fill the rooms. At other times the upper sash of the window can be lowered an inch or more for the admission of fresh air. On no account in summer or winter should the freplace be stopped up, either in bedroom or sitting-room, and if there should happen to be no fireplace in the bedroom the window-sash should be lowered at least an inch. Fireplaces are in themselves ventilators, especially when the fire is burning in them, and do much to purify the atmosphere; but in a small room occupied by several persons, when the lamp or gas is alight, something more is generally required.

## 251.—Personal Cleanliness.

That scrupulous personal cleanliness is conducive to health is one of those facts about which there is no dispute; and the artizan would find a cold bath every morning, if it were possible, an admirable preparation for his day's work. There is an intimate connection between the action of the skin and general health. It is not merely a covering by which the nerves are protected, and which therefore serves its purpose as long as it is kept soft and unbroken; it is that, but it is a great deal more. From millions of small tubes, the openings of which are on the surface of the skin, a gentle, imperceptible perspiration is always being given off when the body is in health. Under certain conditions the perspiration increases in quantity, and then we call it "sweat." Meantime there is another process going on; the outer skin, or "epidermis," is continually flaking off in extremely small scale to make way for a new growth, which is as continually proceeding. Now, if a considerable proportion of the minute perspiration-tubes get clogged up, a

great deal of matter which it is necessary for the body to get rid of is thrown back. If they were all stopped up it would cause death. There is a curious case frequently mentioned in works which treat of the skin that may serve to illustrate this. Some years ago in Paris, during the Fête de Bauf Gras, when it is the custom to parade a large bull through the streets of the city, the little boy who was to ride on the animal dressed as Cupid, was, by way of novelty, covered all over with gold-leaf. The gilding stopped up the pores of the skin, and the child died in consequence. What was done in this case by the gold-leaf is very often partially effected by the dried perspiration and the minute portions given off by the epidermis, and, we are sorry to say, other dirt. Frequent baths prevent this, or remove the obstructions. But this is not all: the application of cold water to the skin is a valuable stimulant, and the glow which sets in after a cold bath, when it has not been too long continued, is both agreeable and healthy. If, however, frequent baths cannot be taken, the skin should be kept clean and the body well rubbed once a day with a dry, coarse towel.

Young children, at all events, may be frequently washed all over with soap and water, only taking care that they do not catch cold, and that the process is not made so disagreeable as to produce an inveterate dislike to cleanliness, which is not at all impossible. The probability is that if they are washed night and morning from infancy they will not feel it a hardship.

# INFECTIOUS DISEASES.

In spite of all precautions which individuals and families can take, infectious fevers, cholera, or small-pox may enter the household, and then the greatest attention will be necessary to prevent them from spreading, as they sometimes do from want of care, from family to family and house to house.

#### 252.—Small-Pox and Vaccination.

Against small-pox there is one, and only one, preventive, and now that it is enforced by law we may hope this foul disease will disappear in the course of another generation. Unfortunately, there are a few persons scattered over the country who endeavour to depreciate vaccination and counsel resistance to the law, under a mistaken idea of duty. We give them credit for good motives, but cannot help regretting their excellent intentions should lead to mischief. Any lengthened discussion of the subject in these pages would be out of place. We have seen small-pox in its lighter and its more

hideous forms, and have personally suffered from it; we know what vaccination is, and have patiently listened to the arguments against it. Deliberately and earnestly we wish to impress upon our readers the importance of attending to the early vaccination of their children. This may be done with perfect safety even with children only a few days old, but persons neglecting to have their children vaccinated within three months of birth are liable to a penalty of twenty shillings, and this fine may be repeatedly imposed if vaccination is still neglected. Parents should bear in mind that unvaccinated children under one year old scarcely ever recover from small-pox, and of unvaccinated children under five years of age admitted to various hospitals during the recent epidemic more than sixty-one in every hundred died.

Re-vaccination is also strongly recommended at the age of from fifteen to eighteen years, and in circumstances of special danger young people should be re-vaccinated immediately, though they may be under the ages mentioned. Re-vaccination, however, need only be performed once. This will give as complete and perfect a protection as it is possible to have. Persons so re-vaccinated are less liable to take the disease than even those who have already had small-pox.

# 253.—Scarlet Fever, Small-Pox, Typhus Fever, &c.

SHOULD scarlet fever, typhus fever, or small-pox attack a member of the family, it will of course be necessary to have a medical attendant, and to remember that not only the life of the patient, but the safety of others, may depend upon his directions being faithfully attended to. One of the first things to be done is to clear the room in which the person is placed of everything not absolutely required; woollen articles especially are likely to become infected, and everything like carpeting, heartbrugs, &c., should be at once removed, and the floor washed twice a day, the first thing in the morning and again in the afternoon. Ventilation especially must be looked to, so that a gentle current of air may be kept up to carry off the infection. This must be done without subjecting the patient to cold draughts. For this purpose a small fire should be kept burning in the fireplace, the door set ajar, and the window opened about an inch from the top, taking care at the same time the bed is so placed that the cold air may not blow in upon it.

#### 254.—Disinfectants.

PURCHASE of the druggist a supply of permanganate of potash, or any other disinfectant the doctor may recommend. A teaspoonful of the permanganate of potash should be mixed with two gallons of water, and kept handy for persons in attendance to wash their hands in. All linen that has been used by the patient should be put to soak in this liquid before being thoroughly washed in the ordinary manner apart from other clothes. Use pieces of soft rag for wiping the nose and mouth of the patient, and burn them when done with. Wash well every cup, saucer, and basin that has been used. Pour a little of the water in which the permanganate of potash

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is mixed into the chamber utensil after it has been used by the patient. Take care also that stuff dresses are not worn by any one who enters the sick-room, and generally exercise the greatest care possible that the disease may not spread. The precautions we are now recommending give a great deal of trouble, and are sometimes very difficult to carry out for want of room, but no one has a right to let a disease loose upon a neighbourhood, and to hazard the health and the lives of his fellow-creatures, for the sake of avoiding trouble. Many cases of such unpardonable neglect have come within our own personal knowledge; in some they have been followed by fatal consequences, in others the possible and probable results are terrible to think of.

## 255.-Danger of Infection from Recovering Patients.

SMALL-POX and fever patients are liable to communicate disease during their recovery, and for some time after they are sufficiently well to leave their rooms. Pitiful cases frequently occur in which persons recovering from such illnesses quite unconsciously carry the infection to the homes of their friends. It is necessary, therefore, to remember that the danger to others is not over because a patient is rapidly mending, and the doctor should not only be consulted but his instructions strictly followed until he pronounces the patient entirely free from infection.

#### 256.—In Case of Death.

SHOULD the illness terminate in death, it will be advisable to fix as early a period as possible for the funeral, and to have the coffin screwed down at once, previously putting some disinfecting powder into it.

# 257.—Disinfection of Room, &c.

WHATEVER the result of the illness, the room that has been occupied by a small-pox or fever patient requires disinfecting. The best process is to shut the window, close up all the crevices in the room, if there are any, by pasting paper over them-stuff a bag up the chimney, or otherwise close it. Carefully stand one or two iron vessels on tiles or bricks in the middle of the room. Break up from one pound to one pound and a half of common brimstone into small pieces, and put these into the iron vessels. Moisten the brimstone with spirit, and set fire to it. On leaving the room close the door, stuff something into the keyhole, lay a roll of some kind of cloth against the bottom, and stop up any crevices so that the fumes of the brimstone may not escape. Do not go into the room again for six or eight hours. Let the window be opened as soon after re-entering the room as possible. Even after the room has been fumigated in this way it is not to be considered safe, and the landlord should be applied to to strip and re-paper the walls and whitewash the ceiling. The room should then be thoroughly washed out, both floor and paint, and then, but not till then, is it to be considered thoroughly disinfected.

In some places the sanitary authorities have provided a hot-air chamber

in which bedding and other articles are placed to be disinfected by heat; where this provision has been made a notice may be sent to the officer of health for the district, upon receipt of which he will send for the articles and attend to their disinfection. Where this is not done, the bed-tick and mattress should be undone, and the contents spread out in the room during the burning of the sulphur in it.

#### 258.—Cholera.

Many of the above instructions apply to cholera cases, but the patient is not likely to communicate the disease during the period of his recovery, nor is there any necessity for disinfecting the room. The most scrupulous care, however, is required with respect to everything that passes from the patient, which should be first disinfected and then thrown away, and the same general cleanliness and attention to ventilation. Everything that is vomited by, or comes from the bowels of a cholera patient, should be treated as if it were a deadly poison.

# 259.—Diphtheria, Measles, Whooping Cough.

WE have classed these diseases together only for the purpose of saying of each, that under certain conditions they are apt to spread, and recommend similar precautions to those adopted in cases of cholera, especially with respect to matter passed from the bowels, or brought from the throat, which should be carefully disinfected and thrown away. In whooping-cough cases much mischief is done from want of care on this point.

# SICKNESS GENERALLY.

THERE are many small ailments and accidents that do not require professional attention; a cut finger, a troublesome chilblain, a trifling cold, or a slight burn requires nothing but a little ordinary care. But whenever advice is needed it is best to go at once to a properly-qualified medical man. The chemist's shop is not the place to go for advice. It is the business of the chemist to sell drugs, not to prescribe; and if he were competent to give advice it would not be fair to expect him to do so for the sake of selling three-pennyworth of medicine, and often much less.

# 260.—Hospitals and Dispensaries.

ANOTHER mistake is to go to the hospital every time advice is needed. We have nothing to say against hospitals; on the contrary, we believe them to be very valuable institutions, but the out-patients' room of every hospital is

crowded by persons who could very well afford to pay the trifling fee required by a medical man, and it often happens that people waste so much time in waiting for their turn that it would be far cheaper for them to pay a regular practitioner for his advice and medicine. If only the very poor attended the hospitals, or those whose cases are so peculiar as to need the advice of the eminent men who superintend the hospital departments, and cannot afford the comparatively large fee required by a physician or surgeon in high position and lucrative practice, all parties would be benefited and the object of these institutions would be gained.

## 261.-" Quacks."

IRREGULAE practitioners and "quacks" should always be avoided. A very little acquaintance with the structure and functions of the human body would be quite sufficient to show how absurd their pretensions and large promises are. They live upon the ignorance and gullibility of the public, and as a rule there is no more disreputable class of men living.

# THE SICK-ROOM.

It is impossible to enter at any length into the subject of sick nursing, which would require a separate volume if treated in detail. The instructions given above as to ventilation require to be carried out not only in infectious cases but in ordinary illnesses, and a small fire in the room is generally advisable. Sympathy with the patient will suggest the necessity of preventing distressing noises, subduing the light, and in every way possible ministering to the comfort of the patient. The medical instructions should be carried out with kindly firmness, and however much the attendant may be tried no sign of impatience should ever be allowed to appear.

In cooking for invalids the most scrupulous attention must be paid to the cleanliness of every utensil employed, and large quantities should never be made of any one thing.

Never leave the food about in the sick-room. If it is not eaten at the time, take it away and bring it again when required.

Do not allow the smallest particle of fat or grease to remain on the surface of beef-tea or broth.

Take care that everything prepared is cooked nicely, so as to tempt the appetite.

# 262.—For a Nutritious Jelly.

Lay six shanks of mutton, previously well soaked and washed, in a saucepan with a little whole black pepper, a blade of mace, and half an onion; a crust of bread well toasted. Add three pints of water. Put the saucepan on the fire, and let it simmer gently for three or four hours. Strain off and set by to cool. This dish may be improved by adding half-a-pound of beef. Sheep's trotters may be cooked in a similar manner. When cold, take off the fat. Warm up when required.

### 263.—Calf's-Foot Jelly.

Put one calf's foot, one pint of water, and one pint of new milk into a close-covered saucepan. Gently simmer for three hours. Set by to cool, and then remove the fat. Flavour with lemon-peel, cinnamon, mace, or nutmeg. Add sugar afterwards when warmed up for use.

### 264.—Bread Jelly.

TAKE a piece of light crumb of bread the size of a penny roll, and cut it into thin slices; toast them to light brown on each side. Put into a saucepan and cover with a quart of cold water. Simmer gently until the liquid becomes a jelly. Strain through a thin cloth, and flavour while hot with a little lemon-juice and sugar. This may be added to tea, and if not flavoured to broth or beef-tea.

#### 265.-Chicken Broth.

This broth, which is often strongly recommended, may be made with any young fowl; but it is not only more economical but really better to get an old fowl and stew it "to rags," with onion, salt, and whole pepper. Skim and strain.

#### 266.—Eel Broth.

HALF-A-POUND of small eels in three pints of water, with a small quantity of onion and a little whole pepper. Simmer gently until well done and the water is reduced to one-half. Strain.

#### 267.—Beef Tea.

Gur one pound of fleshy beef without fat into pieces small enough for sausage-meat, and lay in a saucepan with a quart of cold water. Boil for about one hour. Do not let the water become reduced in cooking to less than one pint. Flavour with a little spice if allowable, and add a pinch of salt when finished.

#### 268.—Arrowroot.

MIX one tablespoonful of good arrowroot with three tablespoonfuls of cold water, and pour over it half-a-pin of boiling water, keeping it stirred the while; add a little milk, and flavour with nutmeg or essence of lemon, and sugar. Arrowroot made entirely with milk is more nourishing and pleasant where the patient can take it. Some persons consider it an improvement to use milk instead of cold water in mixing. When brandy is directed to be given with arrowroot it is generally added in the proportion of one teaspoonful of the spirit to a cupful of the arrowroot, which is then better made without milk.

# 269.—Tapioca.

Wash the tapices in cold water, and put it to soak for an hour or more, and then simmer until it becomes quite clear. Flavour with essence of lemon or lemon-juice, &c., and sugar.

#### 270.—Gruel.

ONE tablespoonful of oatmeal, or Robinson's patent groats; mix smooth with two tablespoonfuls of cold water, pour over a pint of boiling water, stirring it all the time, put it into a clean saucepan and boil for ten minutes, keeping it well stirred. Sweeten to taste. It may be flavoured with lemonpeel boiled in the gruel, or a little grated nutmeg may be put in; but in these matters the taste of the patient should be consulted. When wine has been ordered two tablespoonfuls of sherry or port are an agreeable addition.

### 271.-Barley Gruel.

Wash two ounces of Scotch or pearl barley, and boil it in half-a-pint of water for ten minutes; then pour this water away and put to the barley a quart of fresh boiling water, and simmer until the liquid is reduced one-half; then strain it off. A little lemon-peel should be boiled with the barley. Sugar, and, when required, a little wine, may be added afterwards. Barley may be made in much less time, and quite as good, by using the prepared barley sold in packets. The directions are printed on the label.

#### 272.—Mutton Cutlet for an Invalid.

TAKE off all the fat from a nice loin or neck cutlet of mutton; put the meat into a saucepan, with two teacupfuls of water, and a small stick of celery; pepper and salt to taste. The colory should be cut into small pieces before it is added to the meat. Stew this very gently for an hour and a-half. Carefully skim off all the fat from time to time.

#### 273.-Mutton Broth.

Put one pound of scrag of mutton into three pints of cold water, and simmer gently for an hour and a half. Skim carefully, let it cool, and take off all the fat from the surface and warm up as much as may be required. This preparation would be very tasteless and insipid, but will agree with the most delicate stomach.

Pearl barley or rice is a very nice addition to mutton broth, and should be boiled with the meat. When vegetables can be taken, add a small turnip, an onion, and a piece of parsley instead of the rice.

#### 274.—Rice Milk.

Well wash three tablespoonfuls of rice, put them into a saucepan with one quart of milk, and simmer gently until the rice is tender, stirring it from time to time to prevent the milk from burning. Add sugar and grated nutmeg. Tapioca, semolina, vermicelli, and macaroni may all be dressed in a similar manner.

### 275.—Lemon Water for Invalids.

Cur a lemon into thick slices and put them into a jug. Pour over boiling water, add lump sugar, cover closely, and set it by to cool. When cold strain off.

#### 276.-Toast and Water.

Cur a slice of bread from a stale loaf and toast it to a deep brown. Put it into a jug and pour boiling water over; cover closely and set aside to cool. Take care the bread is not burnt.

# 277.—Apple Water.

POUR a quart of boiling water over two large apples cut into slices, or over two roasted apples. Sweeten and set by to cool, when strain.

## 278.—Raw Egg.

BREAK into a teacup and well beat up a fresh-laid egg. Mix with it a tablespoonful of cold milk and one tablespoonful of boiling water; add a little nutmeg and sugar, and when required a teaspoonful of brandy or a tablespoonful of wine.

In boiling eggs for invalids let the white be just set; if boiled hard they will disagree with the patient.

# FUNERALS, &c.

WE should ill discharge our duty if we did not press upon the attention of our readers the danger, in case of bereavement, of unnecessary outlay for funeral ceremonies and mourning. When a funeral takes place it frequently happens that the resources of a family have been already severely taxed by the expenses attending previous illness, and can ill bear the strain of an additional outlay for interment. A decent funeral is imperative; but there is a strong temptation to go beyond this. There is the very natural wish to do honour to the departed wife, child, husband, or father, and a feeling that the love of the survivors will be measured by the display made in taking them to their last resting-place. Less commendable feelings are apt to intrude themselves at such a time, and the half-unconscious desire to rival friends and neighbours often leads to a great deal of expense. We do not wish to speak harshly nor to judge uncharitably, but rather with kindly earnestness to remind all who may, at some time or other, have to commit their dead to the grave, that ostentation is out of place on such occasions, and that real sorrow is better expressed by simplicity than elaborate display. The

mourners who follow should be few, and the entire proceedings as plain and simple as possible. All unnecessary outlay is not only waste—it helps, by the force of example, to keep up a system which has for many years brought much misery to the households of the industrious classes, inducing them to incur debts they have not known how to repay, and to indulge in extravagances which impoverish the living without honouring the dead.

We cannot enter at any length into the details of mourning, but it must be distinctly understood that our remarks respecting unnecessary display apply to dress as well as to the funeral carriages, attendants, &c. Good taste and economy both suggest the sparing use of crape, which is always an expensive material. The best crape is very costly, and common crape almost worthless. We have often seen yards upon yards of this material put on dresses, with the certainty of being ruined by the first fog in which it was worn. Nothing can be neater than a black Cobourg dress or a French twill worn with its own trimming, and, in case of deep mourning, a small quantity of good crape.

# 279.—Registration of Deaths.

THE father or mother of any child that dies, or the occupier of a house in which any person may die, must give notice thereof to the registrar of the district within five days of the occurrence. Some person who was present at the death should attend to give an account of the circumstances or cause of death to the best of his or her knowledge or belief-a relative if present. The particulars required on registration are:

- 1. Date of death.
- 2. Name in full.
- 3. Sex and age.
- 4. Rank or profession.
- 5. Cause of death.

- 6. Signature, description, and residence of the person giving information.
  7. Date of registration.

The medical man in attendance will supply a certificate of the cause of death, in exchange for which the registrar will deliver to the undertaker without fee a certificate, which is to be given to the officiating minister. No dead body can be buried without such certificate under a penalty of £10.

# BENEFIT SOCIETIES—LIFE INSURANCES OR ANNUITIES.

Benefit societies are so common, and their advantages so well understood, that very little need be said about them. They generally undertake to give a weekly sum in case of illness, an amount sufficient to meet all funeral expenses at death, a smaller sum in case of a wife's death, and often a small payment on the birth of a child. It is a great drawback to many of these institutions that they are held at public-houses, and that they encourage a

great deal of childish display; but there can be no doubt that, when well conducted, they are very valuable. If a man could insure for himself and his wife long life without sickness, it would pay him better to put his money by; but it is often the only provision he can make—or, at all events, one of the best he can make—for those unforeseen troubles to which all are liable. It is necessary, however, to be careful in the choice of a society. A good many promise more than they can safely undertake, and it would be a sad misfortune if, after paying in for a number of years, a man were to find himself in a bankrupt society at an age when no other society would admit him,

#### 280.—Fines.

ONE other hint is worth giving. Looking over the balance-sheet of a large, old-established benefit society, we find that the fines amount to nearly one-third of the income derived from subscriptions, and we know persons who never pay until they have incurred double fines. The report of another large society, which has a deservedly high reputation, states that the entire cost of management is met by the fines alone, and it is a curious illustration of the facility with which some people get "behindhand," that in every similar society fines are always looked upon as a certain source of revenue.

#### 281.—Post Office Annuities and Insurances.

Provision for sickness and death is important and commendable, but it does not cover the entire ground, and the payments of benefit societies at death leave but little for widow or orphans after funeral expenses have been paid. The most convenient mode of life assurance is offered by Government through the Post Office. The terms are easy, and there is no fear as to the security. By this means a workman can insure his widow or children one hundred pounds in the event of his death, or a lesser sum by payment of smaller premiums. In a similar manner he may provide for his old age by paying the premiums for a deferred annuity of, say, £50 a year.

Details and tables of these insurances and annuities are given in the British Postal Guide, to be obtained, price sixpence, at any money-order office, but the following particulars will be sufficient to show the working:—

The premiums to be charged for the insurance of lives vary with the ages of the persons whose lives are to be insured, and with the mode in which they are to be paid.

#### 282.—Life Insurance.

THE life of a man or woman in his or her thirtieth year may be insured for £100 under any one of the following arrangements:—

£	s.	d.		£	8.	d.
By a single payment of . 43	3	7	By a monthly payment,			
By an annual payment,			throughout life, of	0	4	4
throughout life, of 2	6	7	By a fortnightly payment,			
By a quarterly payment,			throughout life, of	0	2	2
throughout life, of 0	13	0				

£ s. d.	£ s. d.				
By an annual payment,	By a monthly payment,				
until the insured person	until the insured person				
reaches the age of 60, of 2 13 10	reaches the age of 60,				
By a quarterly payment,	of 050				
	By a fortnightly payment				
reaches the age of 60, of 0 15 0	of 0 2 6				
Smaller sums may be insured by proportionate payments, but no one of the periodical payments must be of less amount than two shillings.					

No one life can be insured for less than £20 in the whole; but when a life has been insured for £20, further insurances may be effected on the same life from time to time, for any amount, until the whole sum for which it is insured amounts to £100.

If, after having duly made his payments for a period of five years, the insured person shall be unable to continue, or shall desire to discontinue, such payments, a portion of the premiums paid by him (which portion will in no case be less than one-third of the whole sum paid by him) will be returned to him.

#### 283.—Immediate Annuities.

THE sums to be charged for the purchase of immediate annuities will vary with the age and sex of the person on whose life the annuity is to depend:—

черени.—	£.		d. 1	£	A.	d.
A man aged 65 can pur- chase an immediate an- nuity of £10, payable				A man aged 70 can purchase an immediate annuity of £10, payable half-yearly,		•
half-yearly, for	88	18	4	for	3	4
A woman of the same age				A woman of the same age		
can purchase a like an-				can purchase a like an-		
nuity for	103	16	8	nuity for 84	19	2

# 284.—Deferred Annuities.

THE sums to be charged for the purchase of deferred annuities, or deferred monthly allowances, will vary with the age and sex of the person on whose life the annuity or monthly allowance is to depend; and with the length of the term for which the annuity is deferred (or, in other words, with the number of years which are to pass before the commencement of the annuity), and with the conditions of the contract as to the mode of purchase, mode of payment, and return or non-return of purchase money.

When the condition of the contract is to be that no part of the purchase money shall, in any event, be returned:—

£ s. d.	. l £ s. d.
A man aged 30 may pur-	60, and to be payable
chase a deferred annuity	half-yearly, either by an
of £10, to commence on	immediate payment of . 21 18 4
his reaching the age of	1

£ s. d	l. (	£ s. d.
Or by an annual payment,		by an immediate pay-
until he reaches the age		ment of 32 8 4
of 60, of 1 8	4	Or by an annual payment,
A woman of like age may		up to 60, of 1 17 6
purchase a like annuity		

and a man aged 30 may purchase a deferred allowance of £2 7s. 3d. per month, to commence when he reaches the age of 60, by a payment, until he reaches that age, of 8s. per month; and a woman of like age may, by a like payment of 8s. per month, purchase a deferred allowance of £1 16s. 7d., to commence when she reaches the age of 60.

# 285.—Return of Purchase Money.

WHEN the condition of the contract is that, in the event of the death of the person on whose life the annuity or allowance is to depend before the commencement of the annuity or allowance, the purchase money is to be returned to his representatives, and that if the purchaser at any time before the commencement of the annuity or allowance is unable to continue, or wishes to discontinue, the purchase, the purchase money shall be returned to him, the price charged will be higher than when no such condition is made.

£ s. d. Or by an annual payment, Under this condition, a man aged 30 may purchase a until he attains to 60 deferred annuity of £10, years, of . . . 2 0 10 And a woman of like age to commence when he attains to 60 years of age, may purchase a like annuity, either by an imand to be payable halfvearly, either by an immediate payment of . 47 mediate payment of . 40 9 2 Orby an annual payment of 2 7 6

and a man aged 30 may purchase an allowance of £1 14s. 2d. per month, to commence when he attains the age of 60 years, by a monthly payment of 8s.; and a woman of like age, by a like payment, until she reaches the age of 60 years, may purchase an allowance of £1 9s. 4d. per month.

The annuity or monthly allowance granted on any life must not exceed £50 per annum, or £4 3s. 4d. per month; but purchasers need not purchase the whole amount of such annuity or allowance at one time. They may begin by purchasing such part as they can afford to purchase, and go on increasing their purchases from time to time as their circumstances will permit.

Husband and wife may each be insured to the full amount of £100, and may each purchase an annuity of £50 or a monthly allowance of £4 8s. 4d. Any two persons may purchase an annuity on their joint lives, with or without continuance of the annuity to the survivor.

Persons contracting for the insurance of their lives, or for the purchase of

annuities or monthly allowances, will be allowed to pay their periodical premiums or instalments of purchase money at such of the post offices, which have been or may hereafter be opened for the purpose, as will suit them best.

# HEALTH IN THE WORKSHOP.

HEALTH and comfort at home are intimately connected with, and greatly dependent upon, health, temperance, and economy in the workshop, and on the moral habits of the artizan himself; a few words on each of these subjects will not, therefore, be out of place.

#### 286.—Ventilation.

THE conditions under which daily labour is performed have much improved of late years, and the ventilation, light, and drainage of workshops and factories have been better attended to. Much, however, remains to be done, and much more would have been effected if the men themselves had been more alive to their own interests. In many cases masters and men alike appear to be ignorant of the simplest laws of health, or indifferent to the mischief which their violation produces. A curious illustration came under our observation a short time ago. Additional accommodation being required in a large printing-office, two rooms were added, one above the other, each room to contain more than twenty men, lighted at their work by a sufficient number of gas-burners. The ventilation was supposed to have received proper attention, and the whole arrangement was carried out by the builder to the satisfaction of the firm and the district surveyor. All parties, however, overlooked the fact that, as the communication between the two rooms was by an open staircase, nearly the whole of the foul air from the lower room passed directly upwards, to be breathed again by the unfortunate workmen employed above. A more efficient "death-trap" could hardly have been contrived, and nothing that human skill could devise would prevent the arrangement from being fatal to men continually working under such conditions.

What was so flagrantly done in this case is common enough in a modified degree where men are engaged in indoor occupations of various kinds. The result is that health is impaired, and not unfrequently the seeds of disease are implanted, to bear the painful fruits of protracted sickness and death.

It is quite true that some trades are in themselves unhealthy, and in following them the workman is exposed to dangers against which there is no infallible protection, but generally speaking more is to be apprehended from the conditions under which labour is performed than from the occupation itself. Regular living, strict personal cleanliness, and sobriety, are essential to health under any condition, and if in addition to these a fair amount of

fresh air and proper warmth in the workshop can be secured, with moderate hours and sufficient exercise, most indoor trades can be pursued with safety. In a few branches of industry special precautions are necessary, and some are so essentially unhealthy that it is a matter of wonder that men can be found to engage in them, and to bring up their children to the same occupations. With these we cannot deal here, our object being to suggest the common and commonly-neglected precautions, without attention to which occupations perfectly healthy in themselves become dangerous.

When the employment is carried on in a workshop, see that the room is sufficiently and carefully ventilated.

#### 287.—Draughts.

In admitting fresh air, avoid cold draughts from open doors and windows. It is better generally to lower the sashes of several or all the windows a little than to throw any of them down except in very hot weather. Even fresh air is purchased too dearly when it is obtained at the expense of a severe cold.

#### 288.-Foul Air.

REMEMBER reasonably pure air is required, and where the attempt to ventilate a room brings in air loaded with stench from urinals and closets, seek employment elsewhere.

#### 289.—Personal Cleanliness.

NEVEE eat with unwashed hands. This precaution is especially necessary for all workmen who have to handle lead and copper; for painters, glaziers, paperhangers, and all persons employed in repairing and decorating houses, and for everybody who has to handle garments new or old; in fact, we do not know of any employment in which this precaution can safely be neglected. Many diseases may be, and sometimes are, introduced into the system in this way, and the invariable habit of washing the hands before eating is not so common as could be wished.

### 290.—Temperance.

Whatever difference of opinion there may be respecting the value of alcoholic drinks, there is none as to the importance of temperance. Even those who give way to intemperate habits do so against their better judgment, and are obliged to acknowledge the misery to which their infatuation leads. The drunkard's home cannot be a happy one; the disgusting and expensive habit in which he indulges impoverishes and pollutes it; his children are born and grow up under influences which too often blight their whole existence, and his wife, to say the least, loses that respect for her husband which it should be his endeavour to secure and retain.

There are, however, many men who are seldom or never "intoxicated" in the ordinary sense of the term, but who yet drink a great deal, and a great deal more than is good for lealth or than they can properly afford. A shilling a day is a very common sum for working men to spend regularly for drink alone, and it is a very serious question whether such an amount ought to be withdrawn from the family purse for such a purpose. We should say decidedly not, and that no rational estimate of the value of malt liquors or spirits would justify the outlay.

The drinking habits of working men are often formed through the thoughtless imitation of others, and from a notion of good-fellowship, until an unhealthy appetite is produced and the craving for drink becomes all but irresistible. The same morbid craving for stimulants may be the consequence of working in the bad air of improperly-ventilated rooms, and it is one of the unhappy results of a free use of alcoholic drinks that they seem to supply a remedy against the exhausting effects of a bad atmosphere without doing so.

#### 291.—Alcoholic Drinks.

THE actual nourishment contained in beer and ale is very small; in gin, brandy, rum, and similar drinks there is practically none whatever. None of these liquors, therefore, are foods, and we would counsel our readers to avoid spirits under all circumstances, and even in small quantities, on the ground of health as well as economy, and to use beer and ale with extreme moderation. Taken beyond moderation, even short of intoxication, they are injurious, and nothing is really lost by doing without them altogether.

One mischief produced by compliance with the general drinking habits is an artificial and unnatural thirst, often encouraged by an excessive use of salt with food and immoderate smoking. Salt is absolutely necessary to health, and we have nothing to say against the moderate use of tobacco; but either in excess produces distressing symptoms. Do not provet thirst, and do not drink without being thirsty, and where an artificial thirstinees has been created by indulgence endeavour to overcome it. Remember especially that a constant craving for stimulants means that the laws of health have been violated somehow, and make it a matter for scrious consideration, and if the cause and remedy are not clear seek medical advice.

#### 292.—Home.

"An Englishman loves his home," said a friend to us the other day, "and if it is made comfortable he will spend his ovening with his family rather than elsewhere." It is a pity the remark admits of so many exceptions as it does, that so many men should neglect home when it is comfortable, and so many more husbands and wives forget how much depends upon the care and behaviour of each. A man should remember that his wife is not his servant but his helpmate, with a claim upon his companionship, that she has given up her early home that she may share his life and his fortunes, in sickness and health, "for better or for worse." He should therefore make her the sharer of his pleasures as well as his troubles, her happiness should be his constant care, and it ought to be his endeavour to insure her respect and retain her affection, without which domestic happiness is only a name.

On the other hand, the wife should bear in mind that her husband has a strong claim upon her affection, sympathy, and attention. In asking her to become his wife he has entrusted to her the main part of his earthly interests, and upon her care they will mostly depend. She should recollect that the happy fireside and the home affections are the chief rewards of labour, and that where these are wanting the charms of life are hopelessly diminished.

In the family both husband and wife will find a further and tender bond of sympathy, and in united care for the interests of their children they will discover many subjects for mutual consideration and counsel.

#### 293.-Evening Occupations.

It would heighten the attractions of home, and help further to overbalance any that could possibly be presented by the public-house, if every man cultivated some special taste, or, to use a common expression, "had a hobby." Books, for instance, are cheap; a few well-filled shelves are within the reach of most working men, and a taste for reading would never leave a man without the means of spending a pleasant evening at home. We have known labouring men cultivate a taste for mathematics, and find in their study a delightful occupation for spare time. Others whom we know have pursued various branches of science, and have made severe personal sacrifices to obtain the means of continuing their studies. Others, of a more social turn of mind, to whom mental effort is not attractive, need not go away from home for its indulgence. Within reasonable limits, and with a due regard to household convenience, a wife will generally welcome a husband's friends and enjoy the society of those whom he thinks worthy of being introduced to his fireside.

Some men are fond of games of skill, and in such recreations as chess they will find exercise for all their ingenuity. Music has its charms for some, and we have known it studied and practised with great enjoyment in the home circle. Drawing, pen-and-ink sketching, water-colour drawing, suit many persons, and we confess we do not sympathise with and scarcely understand the man who, with all the varied pursuits within his reach of which we have only enumerated a few, can turn away from a comfortable home and linger about the bar, the taproom, or the parlour of a liquor-establishment.

There is much higher ground upon which we might put a great deal of the advice we have ventured to give. The Hebrew king who said, "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom," was a close observer of men and things, and the remembrance and reverence of God, under whose laws we live, and whose will is expressed by them as well as in His word, would most surely lay a firm foundation for human happiness. Moral character and physical well-being, although the connection is sometimes obscure, are inseparably united, and we close these chapters with the ancient exhortation, "In thy ways remember" God, "and He shall direct thy paths."

### HINTS AND RECIPES.

#### 294.-Aperient Mixture.

DISSOLVE an ounce of Epsom salts in half-a-pint of senna-tea. Take a quarter of the mixture as a dose, and repeat it in three or four hours if necessary.

#### 295.—Compound Rhubarb Pills.

COMPOUND rhubarb pills, two for a dose, can be purchased at any chemist's, and are much milder, and often more satisfactory, than the above.

#### 296.-Blister.

BLISTER compound should be spread just thickly enough to conceal the surface of the linen upon which it is put. When it has drawn sufficiently take it off carefully, clip the bladder with a pair of scissors; press the water out with a soft clean rag. Keep the part covered with lard or spermaceti cintment, spread upon soft linen, until it is healed. If lard is used it should first be melted in boiling water and set aside to get cold, after which the water is to be poured off and the lard will be ready for use. Prepare the dressing before taking off the blister, that the part blistered may be kept from the cold.

#### 297.—Bread-and-Water Poultice.

Pur boiling water in a basin, over a slice of crumb of bread, and cover with a plate. When the bread has scaked up as much water as it will absorb, drain off the remainder. Put the pulp half-an-inch thick upon folded linen, and apply it at about the temperature of a warm bath, having previously beaten up with it a piece of lard the size of a small nut. If it gets dry drop a little warm water on it to moisten. A thin piece of muslin between the poultice and the skin is often an advantage.

#### 298.—Fomentations.

THESE should be as hot as can comfortably be borne, and, to insure effect, should be repeated every half-hour. Warm fluids are applied in order to render the swelling which accompanies inflammation less painful, by the greater readiness with which the skin yields, than when it is harsh and dry. They are of various kinds; but the most simple, and often the most useful, that can be employed, is warm water. Another kind of fomentation is composed of dried poppy-heads, four ounces. Break them to pieces, empty out the seeds, put them into four pints of water, boil for a quarter of an hour; then strain through a cloth or sieve, and keep the water for use. Camomile-flowers, hemlock, and many other plants, may be boiled, and the part fomented with the hot liquor, by means of flannels wetted with the decoction.

#### 299.—Burns or Scalds.

COVER the part affected immediately with a good coating of flour, or with powdered whiting, or cotton wool with flour dredged well into it. If the burn is severe seek surgical advice.

#### 300.—Bruises.

In cases of slight bruises, which simply cause numbness, the part should be kept at rest. The best application for a bruise is moist warmth; therefore a warm bread-and-water poultice in hot moist flannels should be put on, as they supple the skin. If the bruise be severe, and near a joint, medical me generally apply leeches over the bruised part (except in the case of young children), and afterwards a poultice. If the bruise be upon the knee or ankle, walking should not be attempted till it can be performed without pain.

#### 301.—Scratches.

SCEATCHES should be covered and protected, and kept clean and dry. Should inflammation set in, a large bread-and-water poultice should be applied.

302.—Chilblains.

The best way to prevent chilblains is to keep the hands and feet warm, to take sufficient exercise to keep up the circulation, and to avoid anything like a sudden change from cold to heat. If a chilblain be not broken, a good remedy is to employ friction—rub with soap liniment, or with equal parts of lead lotion and camphorated spirit. When the chilblain is broken, dress with chalk and tallow—not the grease of candles, which is often poisonous—or with Turner's cerate spread on lint.

### 303.—In-growing Nails.

KEEP the nails cut straight across the tops, when, owing to pressure upon the nail, the edges are sometimes forced into the flesh. Scrape the back of the nail with a piece of ordinary window-glass, and it will become so thin, that, being unable to resist the pressure, it will naturally flatten.

#### 304.—Lacerations and Cuts.

SIMPLE or clean cuts only require the edges of the wound to be placed in their exact situation, drawn close together, and secured by one or two slips of adhesive plaster, having previously washed the wound with cold water till the bleeding was stopped, and cleansed it from all dirt. When the cut has been made with a dirty knife it may be dangerous, and it is better in such cases to suck the dirt out of the wound.

#### 305.—Abscesses

Should be poulticed with bread and water, and may be fomented with a decoction of mallows, poppy-heads, or camomiles. The formation of abscesses is generally an indication that medical treatment is required, and it often saves much pain to have them lanced.

#### 306.-Infants' Cries.

THE cry of a child suffering from croup is ringing, and often like the crowing of a cock; in hunger, it is fretful and wailing; in carache, sharp and piercing; in bronchitis, the cry is gruff and rattling from phlegm. When suffering from inflammation of the lungs a child means, but is rarely heard to cry; when teething, the cry is sharp and fretful; and in inflammation of the head it is a piercing shriek.

#### 307.-Sprains.

SIMPLE sprains should be treated with fomentations, and as much rest given to the part affected as possible.

#### 308.—For a Simple Cold

Put the feet in hot water and mustard, drink a warm basin of gruel, with as much powdered nitre as will lie on a shilling in it, before retiring to rest, and take a purgative in the morning.

#### 309.—Linseed Meal Poultice.

ABERNETHY recommends the following:—"Scald your basin by pouring a little hot water into it; then put a small quantity of finely-ground linseed-meal into the basin, pour a little hot water on it, and stir round briskly until you have well incorporated them; add a little more meal and a little more water; then stir it again. Do not let any lumps remain in the basin, but stir the poultice well, and do not be sparing of your trouble. What you do next is to take as much of it out of the basin as you may require, lay it on a piece of soft linen, and let it be about a quarter of an inch thick." The modern practice, however, is to spread the poultice very thinly; in this case, of course, it requires renewing oftener.

#### 310.-Mustard Poultice.

Mix equal parts of dry mustard and linseed-meal in warm vinegar. When the poultice is wanted weak, warm water may be used for the vinegar; and when it is required very strong, mustard alone, without any linseed-meal, is to be mixed with warm vinegar. Mustard plasters are now prepared in a dry form, like sheets of paper; these require to be immersed in water, hot or cold, and laid on the part affected—thus a mustard plaster may be had in a moment.

#### 311.—Caution in Visiting Sick-Rooms.

NEVER venture into a sick-room if you are in a violent perspiration (if you are likely to remain there); for the moment your body becomes cold it is in a state likely to absorb infection and give you the disease.

Do not visit a sick person, especially if the disease is contagious, with an empty stomach.

In attending a sick person place yourself where the air passes from the door or window to the bed; not between the bed and the fire.

Be very careful, in cases of whooping-cough, that your clothes do not touck anything thrown up by the child.

### POST OFFICE REGULATIONS.

#### 312.—Rates of Postage.

INL	AND LETTERS.—For a letter not ex	. 1 oz.				1d.
	For a letter ex.	1 oz.	but not	ex. 2 oz.		1 <del>3</del> d.
	. ,,	2 oz.	,,	4 oz.		2d.
	"	4 oz.	٠,,	6 oz.		2 <u>1</u> d.
	,,	6 oz.	,,	8 oz.		3d.
	. ,,	8 oz.	,,	10 oz.		3 <u>1</u> d.
		10 oz.		12 oz.	_	4d.

Any letter exceeding the weight of 12 oz. will be liable to a postage of 1d. for every ounce, or fraction of an ounce, beginning with the first ounce. A letter, for example, weighing between 14 and 15 ounces, must be prepaid fifteenpence.

INLAND BOOK AND SAMPLE POST.—Inland book packets or samples are limited to the same dimensions as inland letters—viz., one foot six inches in length, nine inches in width, and six inches in depth, and to a maximum weight of 5 lbs., at the rate of 1d. for every 4 oz. or part thereof. Any book packet, which may be found to contain a letter or communication of the nature of a letter, not being a circular letter or not wholly printed, or any inclosure scaled, or in any way closed against inspection, or any other inclosure not allowed by the regulations of the Book Post, will be treated as a letter, and charged with double the deficiency of the letter postage.

NEWSPAPER RATES.—The following are the rates of postage on registered newspapers:—Prepaid Rate. On each newspaper, whether posted singly or in packet, one halfpenny; but a packet containing two or more registered newspapers is not chargeable with a higher rate of postage than that chargeable on a book packet of the same weight—viz., one halfpenny for every 2 oz. or fraction of 2 oz.

MONEY ORDERS are issued at the chief district offices and at the branch offices, Lombard-street and Charing-cross, between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m.; on Saturdays between 10 a.m. and 1 p.m.; at other branch offices and receiving-houses in the town districts between 10 a.m. and 4 p.m.; at branch offices in the suburban districts between 10 a.m. and 5 p.m.; and at receiving-houses in the suburban districts between 9 a.m. and 6 p.m. On Saturdays savings bank deposits are received at all receiving offices until 8 p.m.

The charge for inland money orders is:-

			,	٠.								
For sums					1d.	For	sums	of	£5 8	and under	£6.	7d.
"	of 10s.	and under			2d.		,,	,,	£6	,,	£7.	8d.
,,	"£1	,,	£2	•	3d.		,,	,,	£7	,,	£8.	9d.
"	,, £2	"	£3 £4	•	4d.		,,	,,	£8	"	£9. £10.	10d.
22	" £8	"	#4 05	•	64 64		,,	"	£9	"	£10.	110.

# READY RECKONER.

THE figures in the first column represent the number of articles, yards, or pounds; those at the top the price of each; the figures in the second column will be the total cost.

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6 1	6 8	6 41	6 6
7 1	7 31	7 54	7 7
8 2	8 == 4	8 6	8 8
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